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ABSTRACT

Three sets of hypotheses served to delineate the focus of this study: (1) the more open the organization climate of the high school, the less custodial the pupil control orientation of the school, (2) the more custodial the pupil control orientation of the school, the greater the total alienation of the students, and (3) the more open the organizational climate, the less the total alienation of the students. Data were collected from students, faculty, and administrators in 45 high schools in New Jersey. Instruments were the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, a Pupil Attitude Questionnaire, and demographic student and school data. From study results, a prototypic high school with a high degree of alienation might be sketched as a school characterized by the following: a more custodial pupil control orientation, a more "closed" organizational climate, a lower percentage of minority students, higher equalized valuation per students, larger and non-urban. More research is necessary to explore the relationship between student alienation and more organizational variables. (Author/CJ)

approved 2/9/71
John Sokol

Dr. John Sokol
Director, Educational Research
DHEW-OFFICE OF EDUCATION - RM 1013
Federal Building
26 Federal Plaza
New York, New York 10007

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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CHARACTERISTICS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND STUDENT ALIENATION

Wayne K. Hoy
[illegible] of Educational Administration and Supervision
Rutgers University
[illegible] Brunswick, New Jersey

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Wayne K. Hoy
Department of Educational Administration and Supervision
Rutgers University
New Brunswick, New Jersey

January, 1971

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An attempt has been made to specify the limitations of the research; however, its shortcomings are solely the responsibility of this researcher.

Wayne K. Hoy
Associate Professor of Educational
Administration and Supervision
Rutgers University
New Brunswick, New Jersey
January, 1971

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SUMMARY

Need and Purpose

Public high schools have assumed a new and important sense of significance in America. Indeed, they have become an important aspect of the social fabric of present day society. Schools are among the first formal organizations with which children have contact, and most school age children spend a large segment of their waking hours engaged in school or school-related activities. The potential impact of schools upon attitudes and behavior of students and upon society seems apparent.

Overlaid upon the growing significance of public schools in their own right is the importance of the concept of alienation, a phenomenon which has been of major interest to contemporary social scientists. In particular, today's high school students seem to be increasingly critical of and alienated from the institutionalized authority structure of the public schools. Present evidence indicates that the roots of student alienation are varied and complex. There is a large body of research in recent years that suggests that student failure, estrangement, isolation, and alienation are strongly related to factors outside the school, such as home environment and parental attitudes, peer-group orientations and pressures, and cultural deprivation. However, there has been little systematic investigation of the characteristics of schools which may be related to student alienation. The primary purpose of this study was to explore the relationships between student alienation and organizational characteristics of high schools.

Conceptual Framework

The specific characteristics of high schools to be studied provided an important consideration in the formulation of this research. Even the occasional visitor of public schools tends to be struck by distinct differences in school atmosphere as he moves from school to school. The principal and teachers in one school may be energetic, friendly, dynamic, and confident, while lethargy, impersonality, and rigidity are the unmistakable characteristics of the next school. Indeed, each school may seem to have a distinctive climate or atmosphere. These observations led to one major focus of the study, the organizational climate of high schools conceptualized in terms of openness and closedness.

Openness of organizational climate refers to teacher-teacher and teacher-administrator interactions which are genuine or authentic; i.e., behavior emerges freely and without constraint.

A school with a great deal of openness is a dynamic organization which is moving toward its goals while simultaneously providing satisfaction for the teachers' social needs. Leadership acts emerge easily and appropriately as they become needed. The open school is not preoccupied exclusively with either task-achievement or social needs satisfaction, but satisfaction from both emerges freely. On the other hand, a closed climate of a school indicates that there seems to be little going on in the organization. Although some attempts may be made to move the organization, they are met with teacher apathy and really are not taken seriously. In brief, morale in this type of school is low, and the organization appears stagnant.

Recent research which has emphasized the saliency of pupil control in the organizational life of public schools provided the impetus for another major thrust of the study, the pupil control orientation of schools. The concepts of "humanism" and "custodialism" were used to refer to contrasting types of individual ideology and the types of school organization that they seek to rationalize and justify. A custodial pupil control orientation refers to those schools characterized by a stress on maintenance of order, distrust of students, and a punitive, moralistic approach to pupil control. A humanistic orientation denotes schools marked by an accepting, trustful view of students and confidence in students to be self-disciplining and responsible.

Finally, five specific variants or dimensions of alienation were identified as the basis for the study of student alienation. Student powerlessness refers to the student's sense of a lack of personal control over his state of affairs in school. Student meaninglessness refers to a sensed inability to predict outcomes in the school setting. Student normlessness refers to the belief that unapproved behaviors are often required to achieve school goals. Isolation is another variation of alienation employed by a student who does not accept the goals of the school as his own. The fifth form of alienation is self-estrangement typical of those who are unable to find school activities which are self-rewarding.

Hypotheses

Three sets of hypotheses were developed and served to delineate the major focus of the study.

H.1 The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less custodial the pupil control orientation of the school.

1-a. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less custodial the pupil control orientation of the principal.

1-b. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less custodial the pupil control orientation of the teachers.

H.2 The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the total alienation of the high school students.

2-a. The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the sense of normlessness of the high school students.

2-b. The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the sense of isolation of the high school students.

2-c. The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the sense of meaninglessness of the high school students.

2-d. The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the sense of powerlessness of the high school students.

2-e. The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the sense of self-estrangement of the high school students.

H.3 The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less the total alienation of the high school students.

3-a. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less the sense of normlessness of the high school students.

3-b. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less the sense of isolation of the high school students.

3-c. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less the sense of meaninglessness of the high school students.

3-d. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less the sense of powerlessness of the high school students.

3-e. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less the sense of self-estrangement of the high school students.

Although the research was guided by these hypotheses, other relationships were explored. For example, demographic variables such as school size, population density of community, percentage of minority students and teachers, and type of school were also examined with respect to the major variables of the study.

Method

In order to test the major hypotheses of this study, data were collected from students, faculty, and administrators in forty-five high schools in New Jersey. In selecting the sample of schools, an attempt was made to include schools of various sizes and from different types of communities, including urban, suburban, and regional schools.

The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), a sixty-four item Likert-type instrument, was used to map the domain of organizational climate of high schools in terms of openness and closedness. Similarly, the Pupil Control Ideology Form (PCI), a twenty item Likert-type instrument, was used to determine the pupil control orientation of the schools in terms of humanism and custodialism. OCDQ and PCI data, together with demographic information, were collected from nearly 3,000 teachers and administrators in the schools in the sample.

A Pupil Attitude Questionnaire (PAQ) was used to assess student alienation. The instrument contains sixty Likert-type items which comprise five subtests designed to measure five aspects of alienation: powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation, and self-estrangement. The PAQ was administered to a student sample comprised of at least ten percent of the students from each grade level of every school. In all, over 8,600 students in the forty-five high schools completed usable PAQ forms along with responses to selected demographic questions.

In addition, data were also collected from the principals and from the New Jersey State Department of Education concerning selected demographic characteristics of the schools and the communities in which they were located.

The research instruments were scored and the results key punched on data cards and verified in order to use the Rutgers University computer facilities for further data processing and analysis. Mean PCI scores, mean "openness" scores, and mean PAQ scores were computed for each school. Then Pearson product-moment correlations were employed to test the major hypotheses of the study. Analysis of variance procedures were used to investigate certain other relationships, and step-wise multiple regression analysis was utilized to explore the relationship between dimensions of student alienation and a series of school characteristics, including the possible interactive effects of school characteristics on aspects of alienation.

Findings and Discussion

Results of the tests of the major hypotheses are summarized as follows:

1. High schools with more open organizational climates tended to have a significantly less custodial pupil control orientation; that is, the more open the school climate, the less custodial (the more humanistic) the pupil control orientation. Interestingly, however, when the pupil control ideologies of principals and teachers were analyzed separately, the relationship held for teachers but not for principals. More open schools had significantly more humanistic teachers, but openness of climate and humanism in pupil control orientation of principals were not significantly correlated with each other, although the relationship was in the anticipated direction.

2. The pupil control orientation of high schools was also related to the alienation of students. In general, the more custodial the pupil control orientation of the school, the more alienated the students were found to be. In particular, custodialism in the pupil control orientation of schools was significantly associated with a measure of total alienation, normlessness, powerlessness, and sense of isolation of high school students. However, there was no significant relationship between pupil control orientation of the school and either the mean school meaninglessness or self-estrangement scores.

3. The final set of hypotheses was concerned with the relationship between organizational climate and student alienation. Again some support was found for the hypothesized relationships. In general, the more open the climate of the high school, the less the total alienation found among high schools. However, of the five major variants of alienation, only student sense of normlessness and sense of powerlessness correlated significantly with the openness of the climate of the school; the more open the climate of the school, the less the average sense of alienation.

Custodialism in school pupil control orientation turned out to be a somewhat better predictor of student alienation than the openness of climate. Total alienation, normlessness, isolation, and powerlessness of students were, as predicted, all significantly related to custodialism in the pupil control orientation of the school. On the other hand, only normlessness, powerlessness, and total alienation were significantly related to openness of climate.

Although hypotheses were developed only with respect to the openness of school climate, relationships between other dimensions of school climate and student alienation were also examined. Disengagement, hindrance, aloofness, and thrust were significantly related to aspects of alienation. However, esprit, intimacy, production emphasis, and consideration were not significantly related to any aspect of alienation. The data also provided the basis for testing several other hypotheses which have been proposed in the literature on pupil control, organizational climate, and student alienation.

In order to explore more fully the relationships among aspects of school climate, pupil control orientation, and dimensions of student alienation, a series of step-wise multiple regression analyses was also performed. In the regression analyses, all eight organizational climate subtests (disengagement, hindrance, esprit, intimacy, aloofness, production emphasis, thrust, consideration) were used as predictor variables rather than the composite measure of "openness" used in the tests of the hypotheses.

The first series of regression analyses performed focused on the investigation of the possible influence of interactive and curvilinear terms in the development of regression equations predicting aspects of alienation from the OCDQ and PCI measures. Due primarily to the lack of consistent significant relationships of interactive and non-linear terms to alienation, interactive and quadratic terms were excluded from subsequent analysis; that is, the linear additive regression model was assumed to be an adequate representation of the data.

The multi-dimensional character of alienation was underscored by the present findings. The conceptualization and measurement of variants of alienation helped to produce a more refined picture of student alienation. School characteristics which were related to one type of student alienation were neither necessarily related to another type nor related in the same way. The results of the final set of step-wise regression analyses, where aspects of alienation were predicted from all of the conceptual and demographic variables, were particularly enlightening in this regard.

Of the eighteen possible variables which could have entered the regression equation to predict student sense of meaninglessness, only type of school and the percentage of minority students in a school entered the regression to predict student sense of meaninglessness. The average sense of student meaninglessness was inversely related to percentage of minority students and type of school; that is, schools with larger percentages of minority students and urban schools tended to have a less alienated student body with respect to meaninglessness. This finding was surprising, but an earlier regression analysis also indicated that custodialism and aloofness were also significantly and inversely related to meaninglessness. The more aloof the staff and the more custodial the pupil control orientation of the school, the less the student sense of meaninglessness. Aloofness refers to a principal whose behavior is characterized as formal and impersonal and to one who prefers to be guided by rules. Custodialism in pupil control ideology also depicts a rigid traditional school. Apparently these characteristics, while they are directly related to other aspects of student alienation, do not seem to produce in students a sense of meaninglessness. On the contrary, they may, by clearly mapping the consequences of student action with a multitude of rules and regulations, increase the students' ability to predict outcomes and hence serve to reduce student meaninglessness. In short, predictability of outcomes, regardless of the specifics of the outcomes, appears to be central in the conceptualization of student sense of meaninglessness. The fact that events are predictable, even if they are alienating in other terms, may mitigate against sense of meaninglessness as defined in this study.

In contrast, custodialism in pupil control orientation and equalized valuation per student were school characteristics which were positively associated with powerlessness; in fact, combined with type of school and thrust they provided the best set of predictors of the degree of school powerlessness among students.

Normlessness is a version of alienation derived from Durkheim's description of "anomie." The student who is alienated in the normlessness sense will be prone to make his decisions to act on the basis of potential effectiveness in spite of rules, regulations, and social norms to the contrary. The successful accomplishment of ends seems to justify the means. The best single predictor of student normlessness was the disengagement of the school. Disengagement refers to tendency of teachers not to be "with it," i.e., a group which is merely "going through the motions." Interestingly, Halpin observed that disengagement corresponded to the more general concept of Durkheim's "anomie." It seems plausible to suggest that perhaps a school imbued with normlessness on the part of the faculty facilitates normlessness among the student body. Together with disengagement, custodialism in pupil control orientation and equalized valuation per student of the school district provide the set of "best" predictors of student normlessness. The rigid and highly controlled setting of the "custodial" school also seems compatible with and may even tend to produce student normlessness, especially in schools drawing their student bodies from wealthy districts where the student body is primarily upper-middle class.

From these results and the findings of other regression analyses which were performed in this investigation, a somewhat oversimplified picture of the prototypic high school with a high degree of alienation might tentatively be sketched as a school characterized by the following: a more custodial pupil control orientation, a more "closed" organizational climate (more specifically, higher disengagement, higher hindrance, lower intimacy, and lower thrust), a lower percentage of minority students, higher equalized valuation per student, larger in size, and non-urban in character. Large, non-urban high schools in relatively wealthy school districts apparently had more than their share of alienated students.

Conclusion

The present report provides, on a modest scale, information on pupil control orientation and organizational climate as they relate to variants of student alienation in high schools. The theoretical framework employed in this study proved to be a reasonably useful one in that it produced a majority of hypotheses which were tested and supported empirically. The results suggest that there are organizational characteristics which are significantly associated with variants of student alienation. Furthermore, the inadequacy of a unidimensional conceptualization of alienation was supported. Social structures may be alienating in one sense, but not in others.

Several recent studies have also underscored both the atmosphere of the school and the student's sense of involvement and identification with the school as salient factors in the student's educational growth and development. That evidence together with the results of the present study suggests that one possible way to begin to increase the attractiveness of secondary schools is to "open" and "humanize" the climate. However, there are no simple approaches for changing the atmosphere or climate of schools. Similarly, there are no quick methods to build a positive and strong commitment of students toward schools, but the two problems do seem interrelated. More research is necessary not only to explore strategies for changing climate, but also to explore the relationship between student alienation and other organizational variables.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Increasingly, the vocabulary of social commentaries is imbued with terms that underscore a sense of growing distance between men and their former objects of affection. Alienation, estrangement, disaffection, anomia, withdrawal, disengagement, separation, apathy, indifference and meaninglessness are terms which all point to a sense of loss, a growing hiatus between individuals and the social systems in which they are embedded.[1] In particular the problem of alienation among the youth has long been a matter of serious concern to educators and laymen alike, but recent developments appear to have intensified the pressure for examination and further study of pupil unrest and student alienation.

Need and Purpose of the Study

Today's high school students seem to be increasingly critical of authority; indeed, they are prone to question the legitimacy of the power of teachers and administrators and the institutionalized authority structure of the public school. Student seizures of classrooms and buildings, student strikes and boycotts, student clashes in high schools, student demands for concessions, and student "underground" newspapers represent only a partial catalogue of student reaction to and defiance of authority and tradition. The factors associated with student unrest and alienation are neither easy to enumerate nor easy to describe, but the need for such analysis seems apparent.

Present evidence indicates that the roots of student alienation are varied and complex. There is a large body of research in recent years that suggests that student failure, estrangement, isolation, and alienation are strongly related to factors outside the school, such as, home environment and parental attitudes, peer-group orientations and pressures, and cultural deprivation. However, there has been little systematic investigation of intra-school factors which may be related to student alienation.

There has also been a tradition to view alienation as an individual or psychological phenomenon; that is, deviant attitudes and behavior have long been considered a manifestation of the individual personality. However, most recent conceptual formulations of alienation develop a social as well as a psychological aspect of alienation. Indeed, if an individual acquires a self or identity through interaction with others, it seems likely that the study of various social situations should provide some insight into alienation of the young. Certain social situations and social structures may tend to be more alienative than others.

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[1] Kenneth Keniston, The Uncommitted (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1966), p. 1.

Since a large number of young people spend a substantial portion of their time in the social milieu of the school, differences in structure, social atmosphere, and major orientation would appear to be potentially important aspects of schools with respect to student alienation. Indeed, Merton maintains that, ". . . the efficacy of social structures depends ultimately upon infusing group participants with appropriate attitudes and sentiments."[2] The primary purpose of this study was to explore the relationships between student alienation and characteristics of high schools.

Conceptual Reference

In order to understand clearly the descriptions and propositions which will be explicated in this study, it is necessary to define the basic concepts which will be utilized in the analysis. References will be made to organizational climate, open climate, closed climate, pupil control ideology, humanism, custodialism, alienation, powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation, and self-estrangement. A working definition of each of these terms, as they will be used in this study appears in the paragraphs which follow. Further expansion of the major concepts will occur in the review of the literature in the next chapter.

Organizational Climate[3]

The organizational climate of a school may be construed as the organizational "personality" of a school. Figuratively, "personality" is to the individual what climate is to the school. More specifically the climate of school refers to patterns of teacher-teacher and teacher-administrator interactions. Organizational climates of educational organizations have been arrayed along a continuum defined at one end by the open climate, and at the other by a closed climate. Concern in this study will focus on these two contrasting types of climate.

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[2] Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1957), p. 198.

[3] For a further discussion of organizational climate, including open and closed climates, see Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1963).

Open Climate

The model of the open climate is portrayed as an energetic, lively organization which is moving toward its goals while simultaneously providing satisfaction for the group members' social needs. Leadership acts emerge from both the teachers and the principal. Neither task achievement nor social needs satisfaction is overemphasized, but in both instances satisfaction seems to be obtained easily and almost effortlessly. The basic characteristic of the open climate is the "authenticity" of behavior that occurs among the teachers and principals.

Closed Climate

The prototype of the closed climate is the school which is characterized by a high degree of apathy among the teachers and principal. Morale is low. Little satisfaction is obtained with respect to either task achievement or social needs. The behavior of teachers and the principal is primarily "inauthentic", and the organization is stagnant.

Pupil Control Ideology[4]

Pupil control ideology refers to a general orientation toward the control of students. This orientation has been conceptualized along a continuum ranging from "custodialism" at one extreme to "humanism" at the other. These terms refer to contrasting types of individual ideology and the types of school organizations that they seek to rationalize and justify; they are "ideal types" or analytic abstractions which may never be fully realized in experience.

Custodialism

The prototype of the custodial orientation is the traditional school which provides a rigid and highly controlled setting concerned primarily with the maintenance of order. Students are stereotyped in terms of their appearance, behavior, and parents' social status. Teachers who hold a custodial orientation conceive of the school as an autocratic organization with a rigid pupil-teacher status hierarchy; the flow of power and communication is unilateral downward. Students must accept the decisions of teachers without question. Student misbehavior is viewed as a personal affront; students are perceived as irresponsible and undisciplined persons who must be controlled through punitive sanctions. Impersonality, pessimism, and "watchful mistrust" imbue the atmosphere of the custodial school.

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[4] For a more complete discussion of pupil control ideology, including the concepts of "humanism" and "custodialism," see Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K, Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology (University Park, Pa.: Penn State Studies Monograph No. 24, 1967).

Humanism

The model for the humanistic orientation, on the other hand, is the school conceived as an educational community in which students learn through co-operative interaction and experience. Learning and behavior are viewed in psychological and sociological terms rather than moralistic ones. Self-discipline is substituted for strict teacher control. The humanistic orientation leads teachers to desire a democratic atmosphere with its attendant flexibility in status and rules, sensitivity to others, open communication, and increased student self-determination. Both teachers and pupils are willing to act on their own volition and to accept responsibility for their actions.

Alienation

Alienation is a concept which has been given many referents by scholars and students of social organization. However, central to most definitions is the idea that an individual has lost his identity or "selfhood"; that is, he suffers from a feeling or state of dissociation from self, from others, or, more generally, from the world at large.[5] The sociological literature on alienation, and the perspective of this study, treats the concept as a multidimensional phenomenon. Blauner, for example, notes that the dimensions of alienation are based on different principles of division or fragmentation.[6] Indeed, alienation has been conceptualized in terms of five major dimensions: powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation, and self-estrangement.[7]

Powerlessness

The powerlessness dimension of alienation was conceived as "the expectancy or probability held by the individual that his own behavior cannot determine the occurrence of the outcomes, or reinforcements, he seeks."[8]

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[5] Eric Josephson and Mary Josephson, eds., Man Alone: Alienation in Modern Society (New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1962), pp. 13-14.

[6] Robert Blauner, Alienation and Freedom: The Factory Worker and His Industry (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964).

[7] Melvin Seeman, "On the Meaning of Alienation," American Sociological Review, XXIV (December, 1959), pp. 783-91.

[8] Ibid., p. 784.

Meaninglessness

Another type of alienation refers to the individual's sense of understanding the events in which he is engaged. More specifically, a sense of meaninglessness applies when "the individual is unclear as to what he ought to believe--when the individual's minimal standards for clarity in decision-making are not met."[9] In other words, this meaning of alienation refers to a sensed inability to make satisfactory predictions about future behavioral outcomes.

Normlessness

Normlessness is derived from Durkheim's development and analysis of "anomie." Anomie refers to a situation in which the norms which regulate individual behavior have disintegrated or are no longer effective social rules for behavior. In particular, normlessness denotes a situation in which there is a "high expectancy that socially unapproved behaviors are required to achieve given goals."[10]

Isolation

Another aspect of alienation refers to isolation. The alienated in this sense are those who "assign low reward values to goals or beliefs that are typically highly valued in a given society."[11]

Self-Estrangement

The final variant of alienation in the present study denotes a sense of self-estrangement. Here the individual is unable to find reward in an activity pursued for its own sake but must always seek rewards that lie outside the activity itself. Self-estrangement refers essentially to the inability of the individual to find self-rewarding activities that engage him.[12]

The Problem

Public high schools have assumed a new and important sense of significance in American society. Indeed, Corwin maintains that, "Within this century, educational organizations have grown from the least significant of institutions to one of the most prominent

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[9] Ibid., p. 786.

[10] Ibid., p. 787.

[11] Ibid., p. 788.

[12] Ibid., p. 790.

influences in our organization society."[13] Public educational organizations are an integral part of the social fabric of present day society. Schools are among the first formal organizations with which children have substantial contact; most school age children spend a large segment of their waking hours engaged in school or school-related activities. The potential impact of schools upon attitudes and behavior of students and upon society seems apparent.

Overlaid upon the growing significance of public schools in their own right is the importance of the concept of alienation, a phenomenon which has been of major interest to contemporary social scientists. In this investigation, interest is directed primarily toward characteristics of high schools which may be related to the alienation of students. However, the specific characteristics of high schools to be studied posed an important question in the formulation of this research.

As Halpin has noted, anyone who visits more than a few schools senses quickly how schools differ from each other in their "feel." In one school the teachers and principal are exuberant and confident in their activities. Pleasure is found in their work and is transmitted to students. In a second school, the brooding discontent of the teachers is apparent, and the principal tries unsuccessfully to hide his incompetence and his lack of a sense of direction behind a mask of authority. A third school is marked by neither joy nor gloominess, but simply by hollow ritual.[14] In brief, as one moves from school to school, each appears to have a unique "feel," atmosphere, or "personality," which will be termed organizational climate in this study. These observations and Halpin's conceptualization and operationalization of the dimensions of organizational climate of schools provided one major thrust for the present study of alienation.

Similarly, the emphasis on pupil control in the organizational life of schools is not new nor surprising to teachers and administrators. Waller's early, classic study of the social organization of the public school focused on the importance of pupil control in the school culture.[15] Likewise, more recent studies of public schools have also underscored the saliency of control of students in the school.[16] In fact, pupil control has been described as the dominant motif of the school social system.[17] Therefore, another major emphasis in this study of student alienation was the pupil control orientation of the schools conceptualized in terms of humanism and custodialism.

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[13] Ronald G. Corwin, Staff Conflicts in the Public Schools (Cooperative Research Project of the U.S. Office of Education, Project No. 2637 (5-1125-2-12-1), 1966), p. 2.

[14] Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966), p. 131.

[15] Willard Waller, The Sociology of Teaching (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967).

Finally, the relationship between organizational climate and the pupil control orientation of public high schools served as the third major area for study. In a word, this investigation was concerned primarily with questions concerning the relationships among organizational climate (in terms of openness and closedness), pupil control orientation (in terms of humanism and custodialism), and student alienation (in terms of powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation, and self-estrangement).

Hypotheses concerning the relationships among these variables will be developed in the next chapter. Although these hypotheses guided the empirical phase of this investigation, other demographic variables, such as school size, location, racial mix of teachers and students, were also analyzed in relation to organizational climate, pupil control orientation, and student alienation to discover other important relationships.

Research Significance

The analysis of student alienation in high schools should increase our understanding of students, teachers, principals and their interrelations with each other. The organization of schools may have more basic consequences for long range learning outcomes than is often recognized. If certain types of organizational structures promote or aid in the alienation of the young, the problem of reorganization and change in the atmosphere or climate of the schools seems evident. Those organizational situations which promote congenial participation and student commitment rather than alienation and are built on feelings of good will and mutual respect among professional personnel and between teachers and students need to be understood to be implemented. Similarly, organizational situations that are conducive to student alienation must be understood if they are to be effectively avoided.

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[16] Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology (University Park, Pa.: Penn State Studies Monograph No. 24, 1967). See also Wayne K. Hoy, "Organizational Socialization: The Student Teacher and Pupil Control Ideology," Journal of Educational Research, LXI (December, 1967), pp. 153-55; Wayne K. Hoy, "The Influence of Experience on the Beginning Teacher," The School Review, LXXVI (September, 1968), pp. 312-23; and Wayne K. Hoy, "Pupil Control Ideology and Organizational Socialization: A Further Examination of the Influence of Experience on the Beginning Teacher," The School Review, LXXVII (September, 1969), pp. 257-65.

[17] Donald J. Willower and Ronald G. Jones, "Control in an Educational Organization," in Studying Teaching, ed. by J. D. Raths, et al. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967).

Authentic interactions among administrators, teachers, and students seem crucial in producing commitment in students. This study will focus on aspects of interpersonal relations which seem especially pertinent to the orientation of the students in the whole situation. Hopefully, the findings will point to factors that should be considered as possible focal points for restoring or securing a greater integration of the individual and group.

In brief, the study should be of practical as well as theoretical value. It should help to illuminate and extend the knowledge concerning relationships among school organizational factors and alienation of students, and the analysis should also provide a critical evaluation of the usefulness and fruitfulness of the conceptual scheme employed in this investigation.

Scope and Limitations

The sample in this study was composed of forty-five public secondary schools in New Jersey. An attempt was made to secure a widely diverse sample in terms of school size, location, ethnic balance of students, and socio-economic level of the region served. The characteristics of the schools in the sample are presented in Appendix A.

The hypotheses of this study do not attempt to establish an antecedent-consequence relation between the variables. Although the variables are hypothesized to be related to each other, the degree of causal relationship is not clear. Generalizations supported by the findings should be limited to the population sampled or applied cautiously to school organizations similar to those in the present sample.

A word of caution is also in order concerning the concept of pupil control orientation. Orientations may be studied in terms of behavior or ideology. The present investigation focused upon pupil control ideology.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE, RATIONALE AND HYPOTHESES

The central concepts of this study are pupil control orientation, organizational climate, and student alienation. Accordingly, the review of the literature in this chapter focused upon the conceptual and empirical work in these three areas of study. In addition, the theoretical rationale of the study was developed, and the hypotheses which guided the study were presented.

Pupil Control Orientation

Conceptual Foundations

The political organization of the school has been described as a despotic structure which emphasizes dominance of teachers and subordination of students.[1] The very nature of the teacher role requires the teacher to impose his definition of the situation upon the students, for the teacher is the official, paid representative of the school and of the adult society; and his main task is to define and evaluate student levels of accomplishment.[2] Inherent in this role is the necessity of pupil control since at least a limited amount of pupil control seems essential as a means of achieving effective learning; in fact, some restraint upon individual behavior is probably an inevitable by-product of purposeful group activity.

The problem of pupil control in schools is not new, nor is there any lack of opinion or prescription on the subject; however, there is little systematic study of pupil control in schools, much less study which begins from the school as a social system. Studies which have focused upon the social organization of the public school have described antagonistic student subcultures and attendant conflict and control problems.[3]

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[1] Willard Waller, The Sociology of Teaching (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967).

[2] Ibid., p. 384. See also Talcott Parsons, "The School Class as a Social System: Some of its Functions in American Society," Harvard Educational Review, XXIX (Fall, 1959), pp. 297-318.

[3] For a classic sociological study of the school as a social system, see Waller, op. cit. See also James S. Coleman, The Adolescent Society (New York: The Free Press, 1961), and C. Wayne Gordon, The Social System of the High School (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1957).

The centrality and importance of pupil control in the organizational life of the school should not be surprising. Public schools are service organizations that work with people or clients rather than with material goods. Street and his colleagues have referred to these kinds of organizations as people-changing organizations, and they especially have noted the variability and unpredictability of human response and the special strains which people-changing organizations encounter.[4] People can usually be changed only with difficulty and not always in the intended way.

Carlson has also described the public school as a special type of service organization.[5] He observed that some service-type organizations control the selection of their clients, while others do not; in some cases, clients can refuse to participate in the organization, while in others, they can not. Public schools fall into the same category of organizations as prisons and public mental hospitals, in that clients have no choice in their participation in the organization, and the organization has no control in the selection of clients. Caution, however, seems necessary when comparing schools to prisons and public mental hospitals. There are important differences. Most prisons and public mental hospitals rely on coercive force to a greater extent than schools. In Etzioni's terminology, schools are normative organizations, while most prisons and public mental hospitals are coercive organizations.[6] Further, prisons and public mental hospitals are "total institutions", and schools are not.[7] Nevertheless, the similarity of the selectivity in the client-organizational relationship seems to have important consequences for certain aspects of organizational life.

Given the mandatory nature of participation and regardless of the goal, be it education, rehabilitation, or treatment, these organizations are confronted with some clients who have little desire to take advantage of the services offered. Hence, control of clients in this type of organization is often of paramount importance; in fact, the organizational goal may be displaced, with client control becoming the end-in-itself rather than a means to an end.

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[4] David Street, Robert D. Vinter, and Charles Perrow, Organization for Treatment (New York: The Free Press, 1966).

[5] Richard O. Carlson, "Environmental Constraints and Organizational Consequences: The Public School and its Clients," in Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, ed. by D. E. Griffiths (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964).

[6] Amitai Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations (New York: Free Press, 1961), pp. 3-66.

[7] Erving Goffman, Asylums (Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co., 1961).

The saliency of pupil control in the school setting has been underscored by the findings of a study of the culture of a large junior high school.[8] The researchers noted the striking extent to which pupil control problems were found to play a major part in teacher-teacher, teacher-counselor, and teacher-administrator relations. For example, teachers who were viewed as weak on control had marginal status among their colleagues, and new teachers, especially, reported a major problem was to convince the older, experienced teachers they were not soft on discipline. In brief, these empirical findings appear to fit the conceptual formulations presented, and they tend to complement the results of the few early studies that took the school as a social system as a starting point.[9]

Relevant conceptualization seems a necessary prerequisite for the fruitful analysis and study of pupil control. Willower has utilized a control typology of "external" or "internal," dependent upon the kind of sanctions employed, as a conceptual framework for development of several hypotheses on the school as a social system.[10] He writes

> When control is based upon sanctions which are primarily punitive, employing devices such as coercion, ridicule, and the withholding of rewards, we speak of external control. When control is based upon sanctions which are more personal and appeal to the individual's sense of right or wrong, stressing self-discipline rather than imposed discipline, we speak of internal control. Internal control is non-punitive and implies an optimistic view of those being controlled, while external control implies a pessimistic view of those being controlled.[11]

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[8] Donald J. Willower and Ronald G. Jones, "When Pupil Control Becomes an Institutional Theme," Phi Delta Kappan, XLV (November, 1963), pp. 107-109.

[9] See Waller, op. cit., Coleman, op. cit., and Gordon, op. cit.

[10] Donald J. Willower, "Hypotheses on the School as a Social System," Educational Administration Quarterly, I (Autumn, 1965), pp. 40-51.

[11] Ibid.

The concepts of "internal" and "external" control are not unlike the terms "humanistic" and "custodial" pupil control orientation. Recall that a humanistic pupil control ideology emphasizes an accepting, trustful view of students, and optimism concerning their ability to be self-disciplining while a custodial orientation stresses the maintenance of order, distrust of students, and a punitive, moralistic approach to pupil control. In fact, this latter conceptualization of pupil control orientation grew out of earlier work and was subsequently employed in most of the research on pupil control orientation in schools. It should be noted that the literature on prison and mental hospital organizations provided many useful clues in the conceptualization of pupil control orientation. Indeed, the concepts of "humanism" and "custodialism" had their early roots in the study of prisons and mental hospitals.[12] The definitions of these terms in this study (see Chapter I) have much in common with "humanism" and "custodialism" as defined and used in the mental hospital literature; in fact, they were originally adapted by Willower, Eidell, and Hoy[13] for use in the school from a typology employed by Gilbert and Levinson[14] in the study of the control ideology of mental hospital staff members concerning patients.

Empirical Investigations

The first major study of pupil control ideology which employed the custodial-humanistic framework was a comprehensive study designed (1) to develop a valid and reliable operational measure of custodial and humanistic pupil control ideology and (2) to test a number of hypotheses relating variations in pupil control ideology to both role and personality factors.[15] The conceptual framework employed in that study, based on status relations in formal, service-type organizations with unselected clients, led to a series of hypotheses about pupil control ideology which were supported empirically in every case: teachers were more custodial in pupil control ideology than principals or counselors; elementary teachers and principals were less custodial in pupil control ideology than their secondary school counterparts; teachers with more experience in the classroom were more custodial than were teachers with less experience; and closed minded teachers and principals were more custodial than open minded teachers and principals. In all, eleven predictions were developed, tested, and confirmed.[16] The conceptual framework employed, it seems fair to say, was a relatively powerful one.

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[12] For reviews of the literature on prison and mental hospital organizations, see Donald R. Cressey, "Prison Organizations," and Charles Perrow, "Hospitals: Technology, Structure, and Goals," both in Handbook of Organizations, ed. by James G. March (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1965).

[13] Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology (University Park, Pa.: Penn State Studies Monograph No. 24, 1967).

[14] Doris C. Gilbert and Daniel J. Levinson, "'Custodialism' and 'Humanism' in Mental Hospital Structure and Staff Ideology," ed. by Milton Greenblatt, Daniel J. Levinson and Richard Williams, The Patient and the Mental Hospital (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1957), pp. 20-34.

[15] Willower, Eidell, Hoy, *op. cit.*

Given the apparent saliency of pupil control in the organizational life of schools and a useful conceptualization and operational measure of pupil control ideology, a series of subsequent researches on pupil control ideology in public schools has emerged. Building upon the initial work, Hoy hypothesized that as new teachers were absorbed into the teacher subculture, their pupil control ideology would become more custodial. He conducted a three year longitudinal study in which he predicted beginning teachers would become increasingly more custodial as they acquired student teaching experience,[17] first-year of teaching experience,[18] and second-year of teaching experience.[19] Student teaching and first-year teaching experiences appeared to have influenced pupil control ideology as predicted; as these teachers were absorbed into the teacher subculture, their pupil control ideology became significantly more custodial. In general, however, the second year of teaching experience seems to have had little impact on pupil control ideology.

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[16] Ibid. See also Donald J. Willower, Wayne K. Hoy and Terry L. Eidell, "The Counselor and the School as a Social Organization," Personnel and Guidance Journal, XXXXVI (November, 1967), pp. 228-34; Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, "Custodialism and the Secondary Teacher," High School Journal, LII (January, 1969), pp. 153-55.

[17] Wayne K. Hoy, "Organizational Socialization: The Student Teacher and Pupil Control Ideology," Journal of Educational Research, LXI (December, 1967), pp. 153-55.

[18] Wayne K. Hoy, "The Influence of Experience on the Beginning Teacher," School Review, LXXVI (September, 1968), pp. 312-23.

[19] Wayne K. Hoy, "Pupil Control Ideology and Organizational Socialization: A Further Examination of the Influence of Experience on the Beginning Teacher," School Review, LXXVII (September, 1969), pp. 257-65.

Roberts also found that student teachers became significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology during student teaching.[20] His results indicated that those student teachers who did not become more custodial in pupil control ideology during student teaching were already significantly more custodial than student teachers who did become more custodial during student teaching. Furthermore, socialization pressure, the difference between the pupil control ideology of the student teacher and her perceived pupil control ideology of her cooperating teacher, appeared to be a significant factor in the socialization of student teachers. It was found that student teachers who felt a high socialization pressure experienced a greater change in pupil control ideology than those who felt a low socialization pressure.

Socio-economic status of students and teacher professionalism are two other variables which have been related to the pupil control ideology of teachers. Gossen confirmed his hypothesis that teachers in schools with students from a predominately low socioeconomic level would be significantly more custodial than teachers in schools with students from predominately middle or higher socio-economic levels.[21] Willower and Landis found that pupil control ideology was significantly related to the professional orientation of secondary teachers but not elementary teachers.[22] However, even the relationship at the secondary level was a relatively weak one,and the researchers urged caution in the interpretation of the finding. They concluded that "professional orientation appears to be a complex variable that includes at best some elements that do not require a concomitant humanistic pupil control ideology."[23]

Two recent investigations have explored the pupil control ideology of high school biology teachers. Hoy and Blankenship found that "innovative" biology teachers were significantly more humanistic in their pupil control ideology than "non-innovative" biology teachers.[24] Furthermore, results of a study by Jones indicated that teachers who had a more humanistic pupil control ideology exhibited to a greater extent the classroom teacher practices recommended by The Biological Science Curriculum Study (BSCS) than teachers who had a more custodial pupil control ideology.[25]

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[20] Richard A. Roberts, "The Relationship Between the Change in Pupil Control Ideology of Student Teachers and Student Teacher's Pupil Control Ideology" (unpublished Ed.D. thesis, Oklahoma State University, 1969).

[21] Harvey A. Gossen, "An Investigation of the Relationship Between Socioeconomic Status of Elementary Schools and the Pupil Control Ideology of Teachers" (unpublished Ed.D. thesis, Oklahoma State University, 1969).

[22] Donald J. Willower and Charles A. Landis, "Pupil Control Ideology and Professional Orientation of School Faculty," Journal of Secondary Education, XXXXV (March, 1970), pp. 118-23.

[23] Ibid., p. 123.

The relationship between bureaucracy and the pupil control ideology of secondary schools and teachers has also been investigated. Jones found that teachers in high authority schools were significantly more custodial in pupil control ideology than teachers in low authority schools, and likewise, teachers in "punishment center" schools were significantly more custodial in their pupil control orientation than teachers in "representative" schools.[26] However, the expertise dimension of bureaucracy was not related to the pupil control ideology of the teachers.

Appleberry and Hoy explored the relationship between the organizational climate of elementary schools and the pupil control ideology of professional personnel.[27] The openness of the organizational climate was significantly related to humanism in pupil control ideology. More open school climates had significantly more humanistic teachers than closed school climates. Principals in schools with open climates were also somewhat more humanistic than those in schools with closed climates, but the difference was not statistically significant.

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[24] Wayne K. Hoy and Jacob W. Blankenship, "A Comparison of Ideological Orientations and Personality Characteristics of 'Innovative' and 'Non-innovative' High School Biology Teachers" (paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Association of Research and Science Teachers, February, 1969).

[25] Paul L. Jones, "An Analysis of the Relationship Between Biology Teachers' Pupil Control Ideology and Their Classroom Practices" (unpublished Ed.D. thesis, Oklahoma State University, 1970).

[26] Theador E. Jones, "The Relationship Between Bureaucracy and the Pupil Control Ideology of Secondary Schools and Teachers" (unpublished Ed.D. thesis, Oklahoma State University, 1969).

[27] James B. Appleberry and Wayne K. Hoy, "The Pupil Control Ideology of Professional Personnel in 'Open' and 'Closed' Elementary Schools," Educational Administration Quarterly (Fall, 1969), pp. 74-85.

The concepts of "humanism" and "custodialism" have also been used to identify different types of school organizations.[28] Schools with a predominately humanistic pupil control orientation were found to be markedly different from those with a predominately custodial orientation. In addition to the basic contrast in orientations toward control of students, "humanistic" schools were more likely than "custodial" schools to have teachers who worked well together, to have high morale and satisfied teachers, to have principals who stress informal relations with teachers, to have principals who did not supervise closely and in general, to have an atmosphere marked by openness, acceptance and authenticity.

In summary, the saliency of pupil control in organizations such as the public school has been analyzed; pupil control ideology has been conceptualized and discussed in terms of "humanism" and "custodialism"; and empirical research which has focused on the pupil control orientations of public school professional personnel has been reviewed. The research findings tended to underscore the importance of pupil control in public schools and the concepts of "humanism" and "custodialism" in pupil control orientation have been both useful and fruitful in the study of schools.

Organizational Climate

Conceptual Foundations

In our society, people spend a large portion of their time in large formal organizations. The consequences of such involvement to the individual and society have long been the focus of speculation and study by social scientists. Attempts to understand the relationship between the individual and the organization have taken many directions. One effort, which seems to offer promise toward understanding, explaining, and predicting the nature of interactions between the organization and individuals is the development of the concept of organizational climate.

The term "climate" has been used in many contexts. Most common, of course, is its usage which deals with the prevailing weather conditions in any given place. Climate may also be used to refer to a generalized set of attitudes or beliefs that exist in a nation, community, or organization. This general connotation may be drawn into more specific reference by speaking of a "political climate" or "an investment climate." The term has been used alternately with similar ones such as milieu, environment, culture, atmosphere, "personality," or behavior setting. Despite widespread and often disparate uses of the term, there does seem to be a common element of meaning running through its various uses; climate refers to some characteristic of the environment that has consequences for the behavior of an individual or group and to which the person or persons are somehow sensitive.[29]

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[28] Wayne K, Hoy and James B. Appleberry, "Teacher-Principal Relationships in 'Humanistic' and 'Custodial' Elementary Schools," The Journal of Experimental Education (in press).

Organizational climate has been examined in many ways. Most studies have focused upon particular aspects of the organization. Stern, for example, centered the development of his Activities Index (AI) on "personality needs" of students.[30] However, the College Characteristics Index (CCI), developed later by Pace and Stern, provided environmental counterparts to personality needs which they called "environmental presses."[31] Environmental press can be considered as the external situational counterpart to the internalized personality needs of students. Analysis of the results of the CCI and AI instruments provide a measure of organizational climate.

Another method of conceptualizing organizational climate was that used by Cornell, who identified five components of organizational climate. He described the five variables as follows:

1. A "teacher morale" measure, more specifically a measure of satisfactions of teachers with their relationships to the organization.

2. Teachers' perception of the degree of deconcentration of administrative power in the school system (the extent to which teachers expect administration to share in policy making).

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[29] Renato Taquiri and George H. Litwin, eds., Organizational Climate: Exploration of a Concept (Boston: Harvard University, Graduate School of Business Administration, 1968), p. 18.

[30] George G. Stern, "Characteristics of the Intellectual Climate in College Environments," Harvard Educational Review, XXXIII, No. 1 (Winter, 1963).

[31] C. Robert Pace and George G. Stern, "An Approach to the Measurement of Psychological Characteristics of College Environments," Journal of Educational Psychology, IL (October, 1958), pp. 269-77.

3. The extent to which teachers feel they are given responsibility when they participate in policy making.

4. The extent to which teachers feel that their contribution to policy making is taken into account in final decisions.

5. The extent to which teachers interact directly with administrative personnel with respect to general school problems.[32]

Another approach to the examination of organizational climate was provided by Argyris, who described "organizational climate" as "a confusion of simultaneously existing, multilevel, mutually interacting variables."[33] He attempted to order these variables into three sets: (1) formal organization variables such as policies, practices, and job descriptions, (2) personality variables such as needs, abilities, values, and self-concepts, and (3) informal variables that arise out of the participants' continuing struggle to adapt to the formal organization so that the latter achieves its objectives while simultaneously the individuals obtain at least a minimal amount of self-expression.[34]

Two implications seem to follow from the research cited above. The first is that the concept of organizational climate is considered by many social scientists to be a viable construct for the assessment of the quality of interaction between individuals and institutions. The second implication is that researchers have viewed organizational climate in a variety of ways. Refinements in conceptualizations and operational measures continue to be made as the concept of organizational climate gains importance as a means of examining organizational behavior.

One such refinement was provided by Halpin and Croft[35] who identified and described eight dimensions of school climate; four of the dimensions involve the behavior of the principal and four of the dimensions involve the behavior of teachers. Each dimension has been operationalized by a subtest of the Organizational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire (OCDQ). Further analysis led Halpin and Croft to identify six school climate categories which they arrayed along a continuum defined at one end by an open climate, and at the other by a closed climate.

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[32] Francis G. Cornell, "Socially Perceptive Administration," Phi Delta Kappan, XXXVI (March, 1955), p. 220.

[33] Chris Argyris, "Some Problems in Conceptualizing Organizational Climate: A Case Study of a Bank," Administrative Science Quarterly, II (March, 1958), p. 501.

[34] Ibid., pp. 501-502.

[35] Andrew W. Halpin and D. B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1963).

The heuristic nature of the concepts developed by Halpin and Croft is attested to by the abundance of studies of schools which have used their conceptualization and operational measures. Research efforts have focused upon the relationship between organization climate and a large number of other school variables. A summary of findings of relevant studies which utilized the OCDQ is presented below.

Empirical Investigations: Organizational Climate and Student Performance

Hale[36] investigated the relationship between the subtests of the OCDQ and student achievement as measured by the California Achievement Tests. He found significant relationships between language achievement gains and four of the eight OCDQ subtests: Hindrance (.604), Esprit (-.580), Aloofness (-.508), and Production Emphasis (-.712). Hale's study did not reveal significant relationships between student achievement in reading or arithmetic and any of the OCDQ dimensions.

In a similar study, Feldvebel[37] found significant relationships between two of the OCDQ subtests, Production Emphasis and Consideration, and student achievement levels, but he was unable to establish relationships between other climate categories and achievement. Miller also tested climate categories against schools' mean achievement indexes and reported evidence that the openness score of a school's climate was related to pupil achievement and that there was a significant relationship between disengagement and language skills, arithmetic skills, arithmetic concepts, arithmetic problem solving skills, and total arithmetic skills.[38]

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[36] Jack Hale, "A Study of the Relationship Between Selected Factors of Organizational Climate and Pupil Achievement in Reading, Arithmetic and Language" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Alabama, 1965), p. 87.

[37] Alexander M. Feldvebel, "Organizational Climate, Social Class, and Educational Output," Administrator's Notebook, XII (April, 1964), p. 3.

In a study of the ten elementary schools in the South Side Project of Newark, New Jersey, Flagg reported that there did not appear to be a relationship between reading achievement and organizational climate.[39] Similarly, Rice held that there was no significant relationship between openness of school climate and pupil achievement. He also reported no relationship between climate subtests and pupil achievement.[40] Roseveare reported that the Esprit subtest was significantly correlated with pupil reading achievement and total achievement.[41] However, Andrews completed a study which related climate to a measure of pupil achievement, the effect of academic ability having been removed.[42] The results of the correlations of climate scores with an achievement index and the multiple regression prediction were somewhat surprising; only Intimacy was related to achievement.

In a word, studies concerning organizational climate and student performance have been inconsistent and contradictory in their findings. Overall, it seems apparent from the literature, that systematic relationships have not been established between OCDQ dimensions and achievement or other student variables.[43] Finally, most of the studies which have dealt with climate and students focus on the cognitive aspects of their performance, and the affective dimension appears somewhat neglected.

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[38] Harris Edgar Miller, "An Investigation of Organizational Climate as a Variable in Pupil Achievement Among 29 Elementary Schools in an Urban School District" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1968), p. 124.

[39] Joseph Thomas Flagg, Jr., "The Organizational Climate of Schools, Its Relationship to Pupil Achievement, Size of Schools, and Teacher Turnover" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Rutgers, The State University, 1964).

[40] Robert K. Rice, "The Relationship Between Organizational Climate and Student Achievement" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of California, 1968), pp. 51-64.

[41] Carl George Roseveare, "The Validity of Selected Subtests of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Arizona, 1965), p. 55.

[42] John H. M. Andrews, "School Organizational Climate: Some Validity Studies," Canadian Education and Research Digest, V (December, 1965), p. 330.

Empirical Investigations: Organizational Climate and Faculty Characteristics

In a major effort to link OCDQ dimensions with various global assessments of schools, Smith reported many significant relationships.[44] Among the assessments he found staff participation in decision making was related to the Consideration, Production Emphasis (negative relationship), Intimacy, Esprit, Hindrance (negative relationship) subtests, and to openness of school climate. Faculty satisfaction was related to Thrust and Hindrance (negative relationship) subtests. Group understanding and acceptance of organizational goals was significantly related to the Consideration, Intimacy, Disengagement (negative relationships), Thrust subtests and to the openness of school climate.

In a study of similar focus, Hightower related concerns of school faculties to organizational climate.[45] He found that faculties in schools with closed climates appeared to suffer from lack of cooperative effort on the part of their members, and the teachers apparently pursued highly individualized goals and objectives. He further reported that the statements of teachers in schools with closed climates seemed to lack the "human" qualities which were characteristic in the open climate schools.

Null conducted a study to assess the relationship between teachers' attitudes toward children, as measured by the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTAI), and organizational climate.[46]

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[43] A review of the literature on academic achievement and climate led Brown and House to a similar conclusion. See Alan F. Brown and John H. House, "The Organizational Component in Education," Review of Educational Research, XXXVII (October, 1967), pp. 399-416.

[44] David Coles Smith, "Relationships Between External Variables and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Northwestern University, 1966), pp. 75-94.

[45] William Thomas Hightower, "The Dominant Concerns of Elementary School Faculties and Organizational Climate" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Alabama, 1965), p. 106.

[46] Eldon J. Null, Organizational Climate of Elementary Schools (Minneapolis: Educational Research and Development Council Research Monograph No. 3, 1967).

He found that the MTAI scores were significantly related, in the predicted direction, to seven of the eight OCDQ subtests. The only subtest that did not significantly relate to the MTAI was Production Emphasis. In his conclusions, Null indicated that a disportionate number of teachers with a "good" attitude toward their pupils were found in the open climate schools.

The relationship between the average age and experience of the staff and organizational climate characteristics has not been clearly established. Bushinger reported that schools with closed climate had higher average staff ages and experience levels.[47] On the other hand, Smith could not establish relationships between faculty experience and any of the OCDQ dimensions.[48]

Appleberry and Hoy found that teachers in relatively open schools were significantly more humanistic in their pupil control ideology than those in relatively closed schools.[49] Furthermore, Andrews has reported a strong relationship between the openness of the climate and teacher satisfaction.[50]

In brief, if a generalization is to be drawn from the literature on climate and teachers, it might be that a large portion of the research seems to support the types of relationships that might be expected from the theory underlying the OCDQ.

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[47] Joseph S. Bushinger, "Organizational Climate and Its Relationship to School Dropouts" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Rutgers-The State University, 1966), p. 113.

[48] David Coles Smith, "Relationships Between External Variables and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Northwestern University, 1966), p. 82.

[49] James B. Appleberry and Wayne K. Hoy, "The Pupil Control Ideology of Professional Personnel in 'Open' and 'Closed' Elementary Schools," Educational Administration Quarterly, V (Fall, 1969), pp. 74-85.

[50] John H. M. Andrews, "School Organizational Climate: Some Validity Studies," Canadian Education and Research Digest, V (December, 1965), p. 329.

Empirical Investigations: Organizational Climate and Principal Characteristics

The factors that appear most often in the literature of organizational climate with regard to principals are those of age, years of experience, and years of incumbency in position. Rice indicated that the longer a principal has served in education, the more likely it is that his school climate will be closed.[51] Smith reported that there were significant correlations in the predicted directions, between Production Emphasis and Thrust subtests and years of experience of the principal.[52] Feldvebel[53] and Wiggens[54] both found significant relationships between principal experience and certain OCDQ subtests: Aloofness (Feldvebel and Wiggens), Disengagement (Feldvebel), and Hindrance (Wiggens). In fact, in a subsequent analysis Wiggens concluded that principals are strongly influenced by the forces of socialization which tend to mold them into roles devised toward maintaining stability.[55]

Research by Rice has also indicated that there was no relationship between organizational climate and the sex of the principal.[56] Significant correlations between principal personality factors and Hindrance, Intimacy, and Aloofness subtests were reported by Sargent, who also reported that principals tend to judge the climate of their schools in a more favorable light than do teachers.[57]

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[51] Robert K. Rice, "The Relationship Between Organizational Climate and Student Achievement" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of California, 1968), p. 69.

[52] David Coles Smith, "Relationship Between External Variables and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Northwestern University, 1966), p. 83.

[53] Alexander M. Feldvebel, "Organizational Climate, Social Class, and Education Output," Administrator's Notebook, XII (April, 1964), p. 3.

[54] Thomas Winfield Wiggens, "Leader Behavior Characteristics and Organizational Climate" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Claremont College, 1968), p. 106.

[55] Thomas W. Wiggens, "Why Our Urban Schools are Leaderless," Education and Urban Society, II (February, 1970), pp. 169-77.

[56] Rice, *op. cit.*

In a revealing organizational climate study, Anderson reported the following interesting relationships between principal personality and the openness or closedness of school climate: schools with open climates tended to have confident, secure, self-sufficient, and resourceful principals, while schools with closed climates had principals who tended to be more evasive, worrying, dependent, submissive, excitable, and frustration-prone.[58]

Smith has reported correlations between perceived school effectiveness and the Disengagement (negative), Thrust, and Intimacy measures. This finding corresponds to those of Sargent, who reported that "openness and teacher rating of school effectiveness are significantly related."[59] Similarly, Andrews reported all of the subtest scores except Aloofness were related significantly and in a predictable fashion to principal effectiveness.[60] In sum, characteristics of principals do appear to be related to important aspects of the school organization in general and ratings of school effectiveness in particular.

Empirical Investigations: Organizational Climate and School Characteristics

The relationship between school size and organizational climate has frequently been mentioned in the literature, but the results are not conclusive. Nicholas, Virgo, and Wattenberg indicated that there seemed to be a positive relationship between the size of the school and the rate of pupil-behavior problems. They imply that this bombardment of pupil behavior problems may require so much of the principal's time that he is unable to initiate actions that are more typical in open climate schools.[61] Flagg also concluded that as the size of the school increases, the climate tends to become more closed.[62] On the other hand, research by Sargent,[63] Rice,[64] and Smith[65] did not find support for any relationship between climate and size.

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[57] James Currier Sargent, "An Analysis of Principal and Staff Perceptions of High School Organizational Climate" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1966), pp. 162-70.

[58] Donald P. Anderson, Organizational Climate of Elementary Schools (Minneapolis: Educational Research and Development Council Research Monograph No. 1, 1964).

[59] David Coles Smith, "Relationship Between External Variables and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Northwestern University, 1966), p. 83.

[60] John H. M. Andrews, "School Organizational Climate: Some Validity Studies," Canadian Education and Research Digest, V (December, 1965), pp. 229-30.

The socioeconomic status of the student population has received attention in several organizational climate studies. Feldvebel found that OCDQ subtests of Consideration and Intimacy both were significantly related to socioeconomic factors.[66] Halpin, in addressing himself to urban school characteristics, indicated:

> Whenever we deal with urban-core schools, we find ourselves confronted with a compound of correlated variables that cannot easily be teased apart for purposes of analysis. Ordinarily, such schools are large, located in areas of high population density, and associated with a clientele of low socioeconomic

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[61] Lynn N. Nicholas, Helen E. Virgo, and William W. Wattenberg, "Effects of Socioeconomic Setting and Organizational Climate on Problems Brought to Elementary School Offices" (unpublished manuscript of the final report, Wayne State University, 1965), pp. 10-11.

[62] Joseph Thomas Flagg, Jr., "The Organizational Climate of Schools, Its Relationship to Pupil Achievement, Size of School, and Teacher Turnover" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Rutgers-The State University, 1964), p. 93.

[63] James Currier Sargent, "An Analysis of Principal and Staff Perceptions of High School Organizational Climate" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1966).

[64] Robert K. Rice, "The Relationship Between Organizational Climate and Student Achievement" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of California, 1968).

[65] David Coles Smith, "Relationship Between External Variables and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Northwestern University, 1966).

[66] Alexander M. Feldvebel, "Organizational Climate, Social Class, and Educational Output," Administrator's Notebook, XII (April, 1964).

> status; as often as not they present problems of racial mix, or as the case may be, racial 'unmix.' Furthermore, since these schools are located in large cities they are members of a large school system which is characterized administratively by an acute hierarchical and paramidal structure.[67]

In his discussion Halpin has also enumerated the difficulties of establishing norms for the OCDQ. He cited instances of research efforts that resulted in indications of predominantly closed schools. Certainly problems exist, but the literature suggests that significant relationships can and have been established between OCDQ dimensions and many important school characteristics. In a word, the OCDQ seems to be a useful operational measure of the organizational climate of public schools.

Alienation

Historical and Conceptual Perspectives

The concept of alienation has received extensive treatment in the literature of philosophy, psychology, and social criticism for several centuries. Present-day emphasis, however, is based primarily on the works of Marx and Durkheim, who saw the emergence of a technological society as antithetical to the basic nature of man. Modern writers such as Merton,[68] Friedenberg,[69] Erikson,[70] Reisman,[71] Keniston,[72] Fromm,[73] and a host of others have built upon, and in some cases recast the thoughts of Marx and Durkheim. Such reformulations seem justified in that the term "alienation" is a multidimensional concept that has not been completely and satisfactorily defined in the literature. It is quite understandable then that modern writers emphasize the particular aspects of the concept that are of special concern to them.

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[67] Andrew W. Halpin, "Change and Organizational Climate," The Journal of Educational Administration, V (May, 1967), pp. 8-9.

[68] Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (New York: The Free Press, 1957).

[69] Edgar Z. Friedenberg, The Vanishing Adolescent (New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1959).

[70] Erik H. Erikson, Identity: Youth and Crisis (New York: W. W. Norton and Co., 1968).

[71] David Reisman, The Lonely Crowd (New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 1961).

[72] Kenneth Keniston, The Uncommitted Alienated Youth in American Society (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1966).

[73] Erich Fromm, The Sane Society (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1955).

While the most common usage of the term alienation is to identify feelings of estrangement or detachment from self, others, or society in general, it has also been used to refer to anomie, loss of self, despair, apathy, loneliness, rootlessness, powerlessness, pessimism, neutralism, disaffection, withdrawal, disengagement, indifference, anxiety states, depersonalization, isolation, atomization, and meaninglessness. Inherent in this list is also the question of whether alienation is a social or psychological phenomenon. Some of the terms such as depersonalization, anomie, and powerlessness carry definite overtones of the imposition of conditions which the individual may find difficult or impossible to deal with in a rational or effective manner. On the other hand, such expressions as loss of self, apathy, and pessimism seem to denote psychological states that may affect the individual with or without external influence.

The first use of the term "alienation" probably appeared in the works of Hegel. Bottomore, commenting on the relationship between Hegelian and Marxian philosophies, states

> This concept alienation was fundamental in the Hegelian account of mind, both in Hegel's own philosophy (in the Phanomenologie) and in a radically altered form in the work of the 'Young Hegelians.' By 'alienation' the latter meant a condition in which man's own powers appeared as self-subsistent forces or entities controlling his actions.[74]

This conceptualization is reputed to have formed the basis for Marx's often-quoted passage:

> The more the worker expends himself in work, the more powerful becomes the world of objects which he creates in face of himself, and the poorer he himself becomes in his inner life, the less he belongs to himself. . . . The worker puts his life into the object, and his life no longer belongs to

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[74] Karl Marx, Selected Writings in Sociology and Social Philosophy, trans. by T. B. Bottomore (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1956), p. 4.

> him but to the object. The greater his activity, therefore, the less he possesses. The greater this product is, therefore, the more he himself is diminished. The alienation of the worker in his product means not only that his labour becomes an object, takes on its own existence, but that it exists outside of him, independently and alien to him, and that it stands opposed to him as an autonomous power. The life which he has given to the object sets itself against him as an alien and hostile force.[75]

While it appears from these quotations that the philosophies are parallel, Marx is careful to point out that they are actually based on radically different premises. Hegel held that all labor was alienative, while Marx believed that the product of labor became alien to the worker only when he sold (as in the capitalistic system) his labor. Hegel suggested that socialization in itself was alienative in that socialized man became detached from the world of nature, including his own nature. To Marx, work was part of human nature, and it was the separation of man from the product of his work, the division of labor, that was responsible for alienation. Marx further believed that the degree of alienation was determined by the relationship of the individual to his economy. In the capitalistic economy the individual is treated as an object and loses his identity.

Marx felt that workers were powerless to change their personal situations when the socio-economic structure emphasized the value of material things. The pursuit of self-interest was not part of the basic nature of man, but individual men could not resist the materialism within a society which stressed competition for gain and accumulation of wealth. Herein was the groundwork for the concept of alienated man. Human beings, by their nature, are not capable of externalizing and selling a part of themselves, their labor, without losing respect for the norms of the society that forces them to do so. Marx's focus was on the lack of legitimacy of social control in a system that makes unhuman demands on its members.

Durkheim, writing some forty years after Marx, also dealt with social control. His concern, however, was with the adequacy, rather than the legitimacy of such control. In Le Suicide he discussed a situation in society which he called the anomic state.[76] His conceptualization was focused on the relationship between individuals and the constraining forces of social control. The state of normlessness or anarchy which he called anomie[77] was characterized as an important cause of suicide and contained elements of psychology, sociology, and economics. Durkheim's analysis was based on (1) man's insatiable desire for material wealth and physical comfort, (2) a societal regulating force that was neither effective nor respected, and (3) rapid changes in social or economic structure.

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[75] Karl Marx, Selected Writings in Sociology and Social Philosophies, trans. by T. B. Bottomore (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1956), p. 170.

Durkheim held that Western societies had legitimized status and success goals without making them equally available to all. Furthermore, once acclimated to respond by competitive and self-striving methods, the individual was no longer capable of the altruistic commitment necessary to a smoothly functioning and anomie-free society.

Merton's now well-known conceptualization of "modes of individual adaptation"[78] is based on Durkheim's exposition. His treatment does not, however, deal with Durkheim's biological drive theory, but stresses, rather, the impact of culture and society on the individual. Merton begins by differentiating between the _cultural structure_, "that organized set of normative values which is common to members of a designated society or group," and _social structure_, "that organized set of social relationships in which members of the society or group are variously implicated."[79] Central to Merton's theory is the idea of disjunction between ambition and opportunity structure, expressed as follows:

> It is only when the system of cultural value extols, virtually above all else, certain common success goals for the _population at large_ while social

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[76] Emile Durkheim, _Suicide, A Study in Sociology_ (Glencoe, Ill.:, The Free Press, 1951).

[77] For a brief discussion of the obsolete spelling of the word anomy--anomie, see Robert K. Merton, _Social Theory and Social Structure_ (New York: The Free Press, 1957), p. 161.

[78] _Ibid._, pp. 139-40.

[79] _Ibid._

> structure rigorously restricts or completely closes access to approved modes of reaching these goals for a *considerable part of the same population*, that deviant behavior ensues on a large scale. . . . In this setting, a cardinal American virtue, 'ambition' promotes a cardinal American vice, 'deviant behavior.'[80]

Anomie is conceived by Merton as, "a breakdown in the cultural structure, which occurs particularly when there is an acute disjunction between cultural norms and goals and the socially structured capacities of members of the group to act in accord with them."[81] He emphasizes throughout his work that he is concerned with overt forms of behavior (adaptation) rather than with the etiology of anomie or alienation. His typology of modes of individual adaptation and the accompanying rationale have done much, however, to lay the groundwork for the development of operational constructs and for the empirical investigation of anomie and alienation.

The importance of Merton's contribution to the literature of alienation lies not only in his definitive descriptions of various modes of adaptation but also in his emphasis on the importance of the *stress of the social system on individuals*. In this regard, Merton says

> Our primary aim is to discover how some *social structures exert a definite pressure upon certain persons in the society to engage in nonconforming rather than conforming conduct*. If we can locate groups peculiarly subject to such pressures, we should expect to find fairly high rates of deviant behavior in these groups, not because the human beings comprising them are compounded of distinctive biological tendencies but because they are responding normally to the social structure in which they find themselves.[82]

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[80] Robert K. Merton, *Social Theory and Social Structure* (New York: The Free Press, 1957), p. 146.

[81] *Ibid*., p. 162.

[82] *Ibid*., p. 132.

Another important aspect of the above statement is that it suggests that many forms of deviant behavior may be psychologically normal responses to an unhealthy social structure. This extension of Merton's analysis parallels the theses of some of the modern writers mentioned above such as Friedenberg, Erikson, Reisman, Keniston, and Fromm.

The writings of Marx, Durkheim, and Merton have provided at least three separate but related ways to view the concept of alienation. Marx was primarily concerned with the powerlessness of the worker to control the output of his labor and, consequently, his place in society. Durkheim emphasized the failure of a changing society to transmit norms in such a way that the members accepted them with moral commitment. Merton's treatment, on the other hand, was concerned with the deviant behavioral patterns that emerge when the goals of a social system and the opportunity for all members to reach these goals are disjunctive.

Empirical Investigations

Not only has the concept of alienation held a prominent place in the history of sociological thought, but there can be little doubt that it is also presently of major interest to contemporary sociologists. Indeed, this latter generalization has been documented by a content analysis of four major sociological journals over a recent twelve-year period.[83] The empirical research on alienation has included studies of alienation of the worker from his work situation, the alienation of the voter from political organizations, the alienation of youth from educational institutions and cultural values, and alienation of the elderly, of the black, of the poor, and of others for whom life has become meaningless.[84] Furthermore, researchers have approached the study of alienation from a variety of perspectives. Some have viewed alienation as chiefly a psychological phenomenon. Others have focused on the study of social conditions which produce alienation. Still others have used a socio-psychological approach to study alienation.

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[83] Charles M. Bonjean, Richard J. Hill and S. Dale McLemore, Sociological Measurements (San Francisco: Chandler Press, 1967), pp. 6-8.

[84] For an excellent summary and review of the research on alienation, see Mary H. Lystad, Social Aspects of Alienation: An Annotated Bibliography (National Institute of Mental Health: Public Health Service Publication No. 1978, 1969).

The basic aim of a study by McClosky and Schaar was to show that within the same society some people are highly resistant to anomie while others are highly vulnerable, and that susceptibility to anomie may be determined by personality factors quite independent of the society.[85] The results indicated that personality factors were correlated with anomie at all levels of mental disturbance and that they function to produce anomie among people in all education categories and in all sectors of society.

Gould also stressed the possibility of psychological bases of alienation.[86] His findings led him to the conclusion that the origins of alienation did not reside solely in the characteristics of social structure; in fact, the major origins of alienation might be psychological rather than sociological.

Srole constructed a measure of interpersonal alienation which was used by himself and others to study anomie.[87] His research findings indicated that there was a significant relationship between anomie and ethnocentrism and authoritarianism. Roberts and Rokeach replicated Srole's research, and their findings, while slightly different from Srole's, did support his thesis that anomie was an independent, measurable variable which correlated with ethnocentrism.[88] Mizruchi also used the Srole scale to examine the relationship between socio-economic variables and anomie.[89] His findings indicated that income alone did not determine whether or not persons became anomic, but that expectations regarding income played a significant role in the process.

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[85] Herbert McClosky and John H. Schaar, "Psychological Dimensions of Anomy," American Sociological Review, XXX (February, 1965), pp. 14-40.

[86] Laurence Jay Gould, "The Alienation Syndrome: Psycho-Social Correlates and Behavioral Consequences" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Connecticut, 1966).

[87] Leo Srole, "Social Integration and Certain Corollaries: An Exploratory Study," American Sociological Review, XXI (December, 1956), pp. 709-16.

[88] A. H. Roberts and M. Rokeach, "Anomie, Authoritarianism, and Prejudice," American Journal of Sociology, LXII (January, 1956), p. 357.

[89] E. H. Mizruchi, "Social Structure and Anomie in a Small City," American Sociological Review, XXV (1960).

The Srole scale has been described by Neal and Rettig as measuring "personal demoralization and despair."[90] In a study of the dimensions of alienation, they found empirical support for a conceptual separation of alternative meanings of alienation. In separate factor analyses, they found the powerlessness and normlessness dimensions of alienation emerged as orthogonal to Srole's scale. They maintained that the independence of these dimensions suggested that alienation may exist in forms other than those manifesting maladjustment and personality disorders.

Dean also constructed operational measures for powerlessness, normlessness, and social isolations.[91] His findings suggested a need for a possible departure from the "psychological" approach to the question of alienation. He did not find that alienation correlated with social status, age, or community background to any great extent and suggested that alienation was not really a personality "trait," but rather a situation-relevant variable. That is, one might feel alienated in one social situation but not in another.

Dean's suggestion that alienation is a situation-relevant variable seems important in that it points to the possibility that an individual might become alienated by and through various social contacts as well as through a personal proclivity to be alienated. It has often been noted that the modern American lives, studies, and works in a more complex and highly structured society than has ever existed. It seems logical, therefore, to study the differential alienative effects of various types of institutional settings. While certainly no one would deny the possibility of maladapted individuals appearing in any social setting, the probability that certain social situations may foster alienation seems a fruitful area for research.

Studies of alienation in institutional settings have been conducted by numerous researchers. Hospitals, prisons, schools, colleges, and various work situations have provided many insights into possible relationships between alienation and various social situations.

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[90] Arthur G. Neal and Solomon Rettig, "Dimensions of Alienation Among Manual and Non-Manual Workers," American Sociological Review, XXVIII (August, 1963), pp. 598-608.

[91] Dwight G. Dean, "Alienation: Its Meaning and Measurement," American Sociological Review, XXVI (October, 1961), pp. 753-58.

Seeman and Evans investigated alienation among tuberculosis patients in a hospital setting and found that there was a relationship between individual alienation and the structure of the ward.[92] Those wards which were relatively unstratified had less alienation among the patients. Those wards whose hierarchical structure was more formal and where information flow and communications were more restricted, tended to have more highly alienated patients. An important aspect of the Seeman and Evans study was the confirmation of their hypothesis that high alienation and poor learning were associated. This particular finding seems related to the findings of Rotter.

Rotter held--and a number of research studies in addition to that of Seeman and Evans have added credence to his proposition--that

> The role of reinforcement, reward, or gratification is universally recognized by students of human nature as a crucial one in the acquisition and performance of skills and knowledge. However, an event regarded by some persons as a reward or reinforcement may be differently perceived and reacted to by others. One of the determinants of this reaction is the degree to which the individual perceives that this reward follows from, or is contingent upon, his own behavior or attributes versus the degree to which he feels the reward is controlled by forces outside of himself.[93]

Rotter related this concept of internal versus external control of reinforcement to alienation. The individual who has a strong feeling of external control is said by Rotter to be alienated in that he feels powerless to control his own destiny. Such a person would not feel that knowledge assimilation would be of any practical value to him and would, therefore, be a less efficient learner. In this connection, Rotter has indicated

> . . . the individual who has a strong belief that he can control his own destiny is likely to be more

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[92] Melvin Seeman and John W. Evans, "Alienation and Learning in a Hospital Setting," American Sociological Review, XXVII (December, 1962), pp. 772-82.

[93] J. B. Rotter, "Generalized Expectancies for Internal vs. External Control of Reinforcement," Psychological Monographs, LXXX (1966), p. 1.

> alert to those aspects of the environment which provide useful information for his future behavior.[94]

Seeman tested this proposition in both a reformatory[95] and a university[96] setting, and his results supported Rotter's contention.

Pearlin also contributed significant research in the area of powerlessness, particularly as it relates to the organizational setting.[97] In his study of nursing personnel in a large hospital, he examined various aspects of authority relationships, and he found that alienation results if authority is exercised in such a manner as to inhibit relatively free interaction. He reported that "alienation is greatest among subjects simply told what to do and least among those to whom the required action is explained."[98] Pearlin's findings also indicated that the extent to which the authority figure is physically accessible is related to the degree of alienation. That is, orders that come from afar, so that the subordinate is unable to "act back" upon the superordinates, tend to be more alienative, a finding which fits the Neal and Rettig discussion of information flow and communications.

Aiken and Hage used a concept which they called "expressive relations" in their study of alienation from work in social welfare agencies.[99] They established indices of formalization, which they called "rule observation" and "job codification."

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[94] J. B. Rotter, "Generalized Expectancies for Internal vs. External Control of Reinforcement," Psychological Monographs, LXXX (1966), p. 25.

[95] Melvin Seeman, "Alienation and Social Learning in a Reformatory," American Journal of Sociology, LXIX (1963), pp. 772-80.

[96] Melvin Seeman, "Powerlessness and Knowledge: A Comparative Study of Alienation and Learning," Sociometry, XXX (June, 1967), pp. 105-123.

[97] Leonard I. Pearlin, "Alienation from Work: A Study of Nursing Personnel," American Sociological Review, XXVII (June, 1962), pp. 314-26.

[98] Ibid., p. 318.

[99] Michael Aiken and Jerald Hage, "Organizational Alienation: A Comparative Analysis," American Sociological Review, XXXI (August, 1966), pp. 497-507.

A positive relationship was found between highly formalized hierarchical structures of authority and alienation from both work and expressive relations.

Pearlin also examined the alienation patterns among high and low career achievers among hospital personnel. He found that alienation was most conspicuous among the limited achievers and remarkably low among the high achievers. He found, however, that

> Even among the limited achievers, if there is a satisfaction with the rewards of pay, promotion, and social mobility, much of what would otherwise be alienative is dissipated. Conversely, dissatisfaction with these rewards will breed alienation, even if one is a high achiever. . . . It can be concluded that it is not simply one's actual career within the opportunity structure that is relevant to alienation, but also whether one experiences deprivation or gain from rewards of money, job mobility, and social status.[100]

However, Neal and Rettig reported somewhat different findings.[101] They identified what they called "status-mobility commitments." Individuals with such persuasions are roughly equivalent to those that Pearlin called high career achievers and that others have identified as "strivers." Neal and Rettig found no relationship between powerlessness and status mobility or between normlessness and status mobility.

In an interesting study of Mexican bank employees, Zurcher, et al., found that individuals were less alienated from work (1) the longer they had been working in the bank, (2) the higher their position, (3) the more satisfied they were with their jobs, and (4) the greater commitment they had to banking as a career.[102] They also found that particularism and alienation were positively correlated. That is, those individuals with strong family and friendship ties (particularism) tended to be more alienated from work in the universalistically oriented bank.

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[100] Leonard I. Pearlin, "Alienation from Work: A Study of Nursing Personnel," American Sociological Review, XXVII (June, 1962), pp. 323-25.

[101] Arthur G. Neal and Solomon Rettig, "Dimensions of Alienation Among Manual and Non-Manual Workers," American Sociological Review, XXVIII (August, 1963), pp. 599-608.

[102] Louis Zurcher, Jr., Arnold Meadow and Susan Lee Zurcher, "Value Orientations, Role Conflict and Alienation from Work," American Sociological Review, XXX (August, 1965), pp. 539-48.

In a study of the membership of an agricultural cooperative organization, Clark found that the more powerless the members of an organization felt, the more likely they were to be dissatisfied with its operation.[103] Furthermore, a recent study of upper class farmers and poverty-level farm workers suggested that powerlessness was associated with income and with perceived socio-economic deprivation as expected, but not with position in the system of production.[104] Power of position was not associated with the perception of power among incumbents, and the researcher suggested that bureaucratic processes may influence such perceptions.

According to Weber, industrialization and growth of bureaucracy were among the major alienating conditions of western society.[105] However, the relationship between bureaucracy and alienation appears to be more complicated than originally anticipated. For example, Bonjean and Grimes have suggested that it is necessary to specify the bureaucratic characteristics related to different forms or dimensions of alienation.[106] Indeed, their data did not support the broad generalization of a direct relationship between bureaucratization and alienation, but rather that only certain patterns of relationships between characteristics of bureaucracy and aspects of alienation were significant.

Similarly, Blauner studied the relationships among technology, social structure, and personal experience and concluded that there were no simple or easy answers to the question of whether or not a factory worker was alienated.[107] He maintained that in some cases modern technology and the principles of bureaucratic organization appeared to possess alienating tendencies; however, in other cases, the conditions counteracted alienation and produced control, meaning, and integration. It seems apparent from the research reviewed that characteristics of institutions are differentially related to aspects of alienation.

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[103] John P. Clark, "Measuring Alienation Within a Social System," American Sociological Review, XXIV (December, 1959), pp. 849-52.

[104] William A. Rushing, "Class, Power, and Alienation: Rural Differences," Sociometry, XXXII (June, 1970), pp. 166-77.

[105] H. H. Gerth and C. Wright Mills, eds., From Max Weber: Essays in Sociology (New York: Oxford University Press, 1964), pp. 221-24. For a good summary of the literature on industrialization, bureaucratization, and alienation, see Aiken and Hage, op. cit.

[106] Charles M. Bonjean and Michael D. Grimes, "Bureaucracy and Alienation: A Dimensional Approach," Social Forces, XL (March, 1970), pp. 365-73.

The dominant institution in the lives of most young people is the public school. Therefore, the relationship between characteristics of public schools and the alienation of young people should provide a fruitful avenue for empirical investigation. There have been only a few studies, however, which have explored alienation of students in public schools and fewer yet which have focused upon the relationship between organizational characteristics of public schools and student alienation.

In an intensive study of a California high school, Stinchcombe studied what he termed "expressive alienation," which he defined as the "expression of alienation from socially present authorities."[108] He contended that a rebellion is a manifestation of expressive alienation, and that high school rebellion has the emotional quality of hatred or sullenness. Stinchcombe utilized Weber's theory of authority to formulate two important hypotheses for his study.[109] He hypothesized (1) "that high school rebellion and alienation occur when future status is not clearly related to present performance;"[110] and (2) "that whenever the goals of success are strongly internalized but inaccessible, expressive alienation results."[111]

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[107] Robert Blauner, Alienation and Freedom (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1964), pp. 166-67.

[108] Arthur L. Stinchcombe, Rebellion in a High School (Chicago: Quadrangle Books, 1964).

[109] Max Weber, The Theory of Social and Economic Organization (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1947), especially pp. 324-63.

[110] Stinchcombe, op. cit., p. 5.

[111] Ibid., p. 8.

Stinchcombe reported the following findings from his research:

1. Negative attitudes toward conformity in general were more common among boys than among girls.

2. Rebellion . . . was related to alienation from various school status systems.

3. The most rebellious, among both girls and boys, tend to perceive a poor connection between current academic activity and future status.

4. The relation between social class and rebellion was fairly clear for girls . . . among boys there was virtually no difference.

5. Expressive alienation appeared to be most common among the adolescents of school age who are exposed to more universalistic labor markets and who filled the manual working class positions in those markets.

6. The lack of articulation between present activity and future status produced ritual poverty among the future workers. That is, they had few symbols, none provided by the school, to render their activities meaningful in terms of the central problem of adolescence: growing up.

7. Among failures, those most subject to success pressure were most expressively alienated and most rebellious.[112]

Stinchcombe derived two major practical conclusions from his research. He stressed first of all, that rebellious behavior is largely a reaction to the school itself and to its promises, not a failure of the family or community. The second point emphasized by Stinchcombe was the "doctrine of adolescent inferiority," which is operative in most schools today primarily as a means of maintaining order and conformity among students. He pointed out that when students do not consider that the young are and ought to be inferior, they encounter trouble with the authority system.

Blane and his associates studied the relationships among alienation, self-esteem, and attitudes toward temperate and irresponsible use of alcohol in a rural consolidated high school in New England.[113] They found that the students' attitudes toward irresponsible use of alcohol were related to alienation in general and to normlessness in particular; however, they were not related to self-esteem, although alienation and self-esteem had a strong negative association.

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[112] Arthur L. Stinchcombe, Rebellion in a High School (Chicago: Quadrangle Books, 1964), pp. 23-175.

The alienation of youth from institutions of social control was investigated by Byles. He found that alienation and amenability of youths to conform to the demands and expectations of adult authority functioned relatively independently.[114]

Besag investigated alienation among participants, both tutors and tutees, of a tutorial project in Southern California.[115] The sample included college student volunteers who entered lower class communities and worked individually with lower class children and the lower class children who were the recipients of the tutorial assistance. Besag's major findings include strong support for the position that alienation is a multifactor construct. He isolated such factors as (1) present meaninglessness, (2) future meaninglessness, (3) negativism, and (4) powerlessness.[116] He did not discover a consistent relationship between socio-economic status and alienation, but he did find, as did Stinchcombe, that females are slightly less alienated than males. The data also indicated a consistent pattern of interaction between increased alienation and a negative attitude toward authority. The relationship held whether the authority figure was the society, politicians, or school principals.

A study of classroom alienation conducted by Epperson focused primarily on two forms of alienation: isolation and powerlessness. The results indicated that high isolation and high powerlessness were both related to low actualization of a student's academic ability.[117]

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[113] H. T. Blane, M. J. Hill and Elliot Brown, "Alienation, Self-Esteem, and Attitudes Toward Drinking in High-school Students," _Quarterly Journal of Studies in Alcohol_, XXIX (1968), pp. 350-54.

[114] John A. Byles, "Alienation and Social Control: A Study of Adolescents in a Suburban Community" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri, 1968).

[115] Frank P. Besag, _Alienation and Education: An Empirical Approach_ (Buffalo: Hertillon Press, 1966).

[116] _Ibid._, p. 90.

Lauterbach maintained that alienation leading to premature school withdrawal manifested itself in cultural alienation, social alienation from school performance, and self-alienation.[118] His data, collected from high school graduates and dropouts of both sexes, supported the hypothesis of cultural, social, and self-alienation of the dropouts.

The major objective of Winslow's study of sororities, fraternities, and poverty-pocket area high school students was to determine the relationships between position in the youth system of social relationships and alienation and delinquency.[119] Powerlessness, normlessness, self-estrangement, and isolation seemed to be differentially related to youth system position according to school, society, or friendship setting. Members of lower stratum organizations appeared relatively high in societal isolation as compared to higher stratum members. Lower stratum insiders tended not to differ in societal powerlessness, normlessness, and self-estrangement as compared to higher stratum, but they were relatively high in measures of friendship and school alienation. In addition, Winslow found that rebellion was higher within a socio-economically differentiated middle class area than within a less differentiated poverty-pocket area.

Polk examined the impact of a flexible-modular high school upon the students' feeling of powerlessness described as a sense of internal control of reinforcements, or internality.[120]

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[117] David C. Epperson, "Some Interpersonal and Performance Correlates of Classroom Alienation," The School Review, LXXI (Autumn, 1963), pp. 360-76.

[118] Walter L. Lauterbach, "Alienation, Anomie, and Dropouts" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Claremont Graduate School, Claremont, California, 1967).

[119] Robert W. Winslow, Jr., "An Organizational Theory of Delinquency and Alienation" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of California at Los Angeles, 1966).

[120] Barbara Jane Bovee Polk, "Sense of Internal Control in a Non-Alienative Environment: A Study of a Flexible-Modular High School" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Michigan, 1968).

The study design involved comparing boys from two traditional high schools with boys from a non-conventional high school. Those boys from the modular school who placed high importance on knowing adults and on being independent were significantly more internal and more satisfied with their school than boys who showed the same needs in the conventional schools. There was no significant differences between school types for boys who placed low or average importance on any need. Her conclusion indicated that the modular-flexible school had positive effects on the development of a sense of internal control among boys who place high importance on the several needs (independence, achieving success, knowing adults well, avoiding failure), especially the need for independence.

Several studies of alienation of college students appear relevant to this review of the alienation literature. Whyte found the college students possessing concrete goal objectives were less alienated than students who had no clearly defined major or future occupational role.[121] Furthermore students from working class homes were not more alienated from the academic system than students from other social classes. As a matter of fact, the urban-middle class students appeared to be more highly alienated than small town and lower class students. Whyte argued that this could be due to the urban-middle class students' subscription to the intellectual "ideology of alienation" of our times.

Mayberry's investigation of task-alienative, task-integrative, interpersonal-alienative, and interpersonal-integrative treatments in a college setting indicated that "alienated classroom environments lead to poor attitudes on the part of students and that task alienation interferes with task performance while interpersonal alienation does not." Generally, negative attitudes on the instructor's part produces negative results among students.[122]

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[121] Donald R. Whyte, "Social Alienation Among College Students" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Cornell University, 1963).

[122] William Mayberry, "The Effects of the Teacher's Affective Behavior on Student Attitudes and Achievement: An Experimental Study of Alienative Classroom Environments" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Illinois, 1968), p. 86.

Keniston conducted a highly significant and intensive three-year study of thirty-six Harvard University undergraduates.[123] His subjects included twelve extremely alienated, twelve non-alienated, and twelve moderately alienated young men. During the study each of the thirty-six students devoted more than 200 hours to interviews, writing about themselves, constructing fantasies, and taking standardized tests. While the sample of students studied in Keniston's research was by no means representative of the population-at-large, he was able to draw conclusions that appear useful in examining alienation in the schools. He described the manner in which affluence, increasing rates of social change, lack of creativity in work, and a decline in Utopian ideas have probably contributed to apathy and withdrawal of youth. Keniston maintained that the alienated "repudiate those institutions they see as characteristic of our society."[124] Since the school represents the primary point of contact between social institutions and the young, it seems logical that the norms, values, and authority structure of the school may become the focus of rejection among alienated students.

In one of the few studies to deal with the relationship between student alienation and organizational characteristics of schools, Kolesar studied the relationship between student alienation and bureaucratic structure in twenty high schools in the Province of Alberta, Canada.[125] He conceptualized four types of bureaucracy: monocratic, representative, punishment-centered, and mock. He was able to identify schools in each category except the mock bureaucratic type. He found that the degree of alienation among pupils attending different types of bureaucratic schools was significantly different on certain dimensions of alienation, especially powerlessness and, to a lesser degree, meaninglessness. Powerlessness scores were significantly higher in punishment-centered than in representative bureaucracies. The findings of the study provide some support for the proposition that student alienation and type of organizational structure are related. The research also provided additional evidence that alienation is a multi-dimensional concept and that the components of alienation may be measured and analyzed separately.

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[123] Kenneth Keniston, The Uncommitted Alienated Youth in American Society (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1966).

[124] Ibid., p. 60.

[125] Henry Kolesar, "An Empirical Study of Client Alienation in the Bureaucratic Organization" (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada, 1967).

Conceptual Basis for the Study of Student Alienation

In 1959 Seeman published an important theoretical paper which helped to clarify the multi-dimensional concept of alienation and which seems especially appropriate as a basis for studying alienation in school settings.[126] The purpose of his essay he summarized as follows:

> . . . to make more organized sense of one of the great traditions in sociological thought; and to make traditional interest in alienation more amenable to sharp empirical statement.[127]

Seeman identified five basic ways in which the concept of alienation had been used as he traced the traditional sociological roots of the terms, and he presented a clear, researchable statement of meaning for each. His definitions of the aspects of alienation are meant to provide a basis for the socio-psychological study of alienation. Each variant of alienation is presented and briefly reviewed in the following paragraphs.

Powerlessness is described as the "expectancy or probability held by the individual that his own behavior cannot determine the occurrence of the outcomes, or reinforcement, he seeks."[128] This variant of alienation had its roots in the Marxian view of the worker's condition in capitalist society, but it was later extended beyond the industrial situation by the work of Weber. Seeman's notion of powerlessness as an expectancy refers to the individual's sense of personal control over his state of affairs, as contrasted with the view that the situation is dependent on external conditions. The individual who suffers from a sense of powerlessness believes that external conditions such as luck, chance, or manipulation by others determine, in fact, control his future; he believes that there is little that he can personally do to influence future outcomes.

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[126] Melvin Seeman, "On the Meaning of Alienation," American Sociological Review, XXIV (December, 1959), pp. 783-91.

[127] Ibid., p. 783.

[128] Ibid., p. 784.

Meaninglessness describes a state of alienation characterized by a "low expectancy that satisfactory predictions about future outcomes of behavior can be made."[129] Where powerlessness refers to a sensed inability to control outcomes, meaninglessness refers to a sensed inability to predict outcomes. The individual who has a sense of meaninglessness is one generally characterized by a lack of understanding of the events in which he is engaged. He is unclear as to what he should believe, and since minimal standards for clarity in decision-making are not met, he can not choose with any confidence among alternatives.

Normlessness is defined as a "high expectancy that socially unapproved behaviors are required to achieve given goals."[130] This version of alienation is derived from Durkheim's description of "anomie." Traditionally, the term anomie denoted a situation in which social norms were no longer effective rules of behavior. Merton has indicated that in such situations "the technically most effective procedure, whether culturally legitimate or not, becomes typically preferred to institutionally prescribed conduct."[131] Hence, the individual who is alienated in the normlessness sense will be prone to make his decisions on the basis of potential effectiveness in spite of social norms to the contrary.

Isolation refers to the assignment of "low reward value to goals or beliefs that are typically highly valued in a society."[132] This usage of the term isolation does not denote a lack of warmth or intensity in social contacts. Rather it refers to a situation in which the individual has become detached from his society and culture. The isolated individual is alienated from reigning goals and standards, and he tends to opt for a new social structure with a new and different set of priorities.

Self-estrangement is "the degree of dependence of the given behavior upon anticipated future rewards."[133] This variant of alienation encompasses the idea of intrinsically meaningful activity. Alienation in this sense would include the worker who works merely for his salary or the student who studies because it will qualify him for a better job, not because he enjoys studying or acquiring knowledge for its own sake. In a word, the self-estranged individual is unable to find activities which are self-rewarding. He must find a reward outside the activity in which he participates; hence, an activity is never pursued simply for its own sake.

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[129] Melvin Seeman, "On the Meaning of Alienation," *American Sociological Review*, XXIV (December, 1959), p. 786.

[130] *Ibid.*, p. 788.

[131] Robert K. Merton, *Social Theory and Social Structure* (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1949), p. 128.

[132] Seeman, *op. cit.*, p. 789.

[133] *Ibid.*, p. 790.

Evidence of the fruitfulness of Seeman's conceptualization is supported by numerous empirical studies, including Kolesar's study of student alienation in high schools, which have used his framework in the study of alienation.[134]

Rationale and Hypotheses

Public schools are social units specifically vested with a service function, in this case the moral and technical socialization of the young.[135] Furthermore, they are a special type of organization in which clients have no choice in their participation in the organization and the organization has no control in the selection of clients.[136] Hence, educational services must sometimes be provided to students who have little motivation to take advantage of the services. Also pupil control has been found to be a highly significant aspect of school life; in fact, it has been described as the "dominant motif" of the social organization of a school.[137] Since the school is a special type of service organization in which clients are unselected and participation is mandatory, it seems reasonable to assume that pupil control orientation is an important school factor that will bear a relationship to the climate of the school.

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[134] See for example, Dwight G. Dean, "Alienation: Its Meaning and Measurement," American Sociological Review, XXVI (October, 1961); Michael Aiken and Jerald Hage, "Organizational Alienation: A Comparative Analysis," American Sociological Review, XXXI, No. 4 (August, 1966); Arthur G. Neal and Melvin Seeman, "Organizations and Powerlessness: A Test of the Mediation Hypothesis," American Sociological Review, XXIX (April, 1964); Melvin Seeman and John W. Evans, "Alienation and Learning in a Hospital Setting," American Sociological Review, XXVII (December, 1962); Henry Kolesar, "An Empirical Study of Client Alienation in the Bureaucratic Organization" (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada, 1967); and Charles M. Bonjean and Michael D. Grimes, "Bureaucracy and Alienation: A Dimensional Approach," Social Forces, IIL (March, 1970), pp. 365-83.

[135] For an excellent discussion concerning the basic characteristics of public schools as formal organizations, see Charles E. Bidwell, "The School as a Formal Organization," in Handbook of Organizations, ed. by James March (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1965), pp. 972-1022.

[136] Richard O. Carlson, "Environmental Constraints and Organizational Consequences: The Public School and Its Clients," in Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, ed. by Daniel E. Griffiths (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), pp. 262-76.

In his study of the organizational climate of schools, Halpin concluded that the chief consequence of that investigation was the identification of the pivotal importance of authenticity in organizational behavior.[138] Authenticity refers to behavior which is "for real," that is, genuine or without pretense.

The concept of authenticity in organizational behavior seems highly compatible with a humanistic pupil control orientation of professional public school personnel. The humanistic orientation emphasizes cooperative interactions between students and teachers, two-way communication, increased student self-determination, and the importance of individuality.

In the open climate, if interactions among teachers and between teachers and the principal are authentic, then it seems reasonable to assume that authenticity would also tend to pervade teacher-pupil interactions. Further, a humanistic pupil control orientation would appear to facilitate and be facilitated by authentic interactions between teachers and pupils.

Given the inauthenticity of the closed climate, it seems likely that teachers will be somewhat fearful of criticism, especially criticism concerning "lack of control"; hence, they may attempt to keep others at a distance and strive to maintain custodial control over students. However, the open climate should provide an atmosphere where teachers will be more at ease and less fearful of criticism, a situation which should foster more authentic pupil-teacher relationships and a humanistic pupil control orientation.[139]

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[137] Donald J. Willower and Ronald G. Jones, "Control in an Educational Organization," in Studying Teaching, ed. by J. D. Raths, et al. (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967.

[138] Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966), p. 207.

The following related hypotheses are derived from the preceding rationale.[140]

H.1. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school.

  1-a. The more open the organizational climate of a high school, the less custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school principal.

  1-b. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less custodial the pupil control orientation of the teachers.

Another major concern of the investigation was the relationship between organizational characteristics of high schools and student alienation. The conceptual basis for the study of student alienation consisted of Seeman's formulation; hence, five separate variants of alienation including normlessness, powerlessness, meaninglessness, isolation, and self-estrangement as well as a composite measure of total alienation were employed in this study.[141] Kolesar[142] has adopted and used Seeman's five components of alienation to study the degree of alienation of students. Kolesar's data revealed that powerlessness and total alienation were positively related to the bureaucratic structure of schools; that is, the greater the degree of emphasis on bureaucratic authority, the greater the sense of powerlessness and total alienation of students.

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[139] It should be indicated, however, that authenticity in pupil-teacher interaction will probably never be as "pure" as it might become in teacher-teacher or teacher-principal interactions. Since the political organization of the schools requires the subordination of pupils, a certain amount of social distance between pupil and teacher seems inevitable.

[140] The same rationale was used to develop similar hypotheses for the elementary school. See James Appleberry and Wayne K. Hoy, "The Pupil Control Ideology of Professional Personnel in 'Open' and 'Closed' Elementary Schools," Educational Administration Quarterly, V (Fall, 1969), pp. 76-77.

[141] Melvin Seeman, "On the Meaning of Alienation," American Sociological Review, XXIV (December, 1959).

[142] Henry Kolesar, "An Empirical Study of Client Alienation in the Bureaucratic Organization" (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada, 1967).

Given the apparent saliency of pupil control in public schools, the concepts of "humanism" and "custodialism" in the control orientations of schools seemed important in the analysis of the alienation of students from school. We theorized that schools characterized by a humanistic pupil control orientation should foster opportunities for meaningful and authentic social relations, thereby producing a situation which was more compatible with positive commitment of students to their teachers and school. In contrast, a custodial pupil control orientation in schools should provide an atmosphere in the school that would make identification with organizational representatives, the professional personnel of the school, extremely difficult. In fact, a basic assumption of Etzioni's "compliance theory" is that coercive control in organizations tends to produce alienation of lower participants.[143] Therefore, the following set of related hypotheses also guided the study:

H.2. The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the total alienation of the high school students.

- 2-a. The more custodial the pupil control alienation of the high school, the greater the sense of normlessness of the high school students.
- 2-b. The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the sense of powerlessness of the high school students.
- 2-c. The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the sense of meaninglessness of the high school students.
- 2-d. The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the sense of isolation of the high school students.

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[143] Amitai Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations (New York: Free Press, 1961).

2-e. The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the sense of self-estrangement of the high school students.

If the school is to be responsive to the basic human needs of its students, it would appear necessary that teacher behavior be authentic. It seems reasonable to postulate that schools characterized by authentic interactions should foster opportunities for meaningful social relations, thereby producing a situation which is highly compatible with positive commitment of students to their teachers and school. In contrast, inauthentic interactions make identification with organizational representatives, the professional personnel of the school, extremely difficult.

Halpin and Croft have indicated that the basic characteristic of the open school climate was the "authenticity" of behavior that occurred among teachers and between teachers and the principal while "inauthenticity" of behavior imbued the closed climate.[144] Again, it seems reasonable to assume that authenticity would also tend to pervade teacher-pupil interactions in high schools with open school climates and that authentic interactions with students should facilitate student commitment and positive identification rather than the alienation that would be expected with the inauthentic interactions more likely to be found in schools with a closed climate. Accordingly, the following hypotheses were posited:

H.3. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less the total alienation of the high school students.

3-a. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less the sense of normlessness of the high school students.

3-b. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less the sense of powerlessness of the high school students.

3-c. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less the sense of meaninglessness of the high school students.

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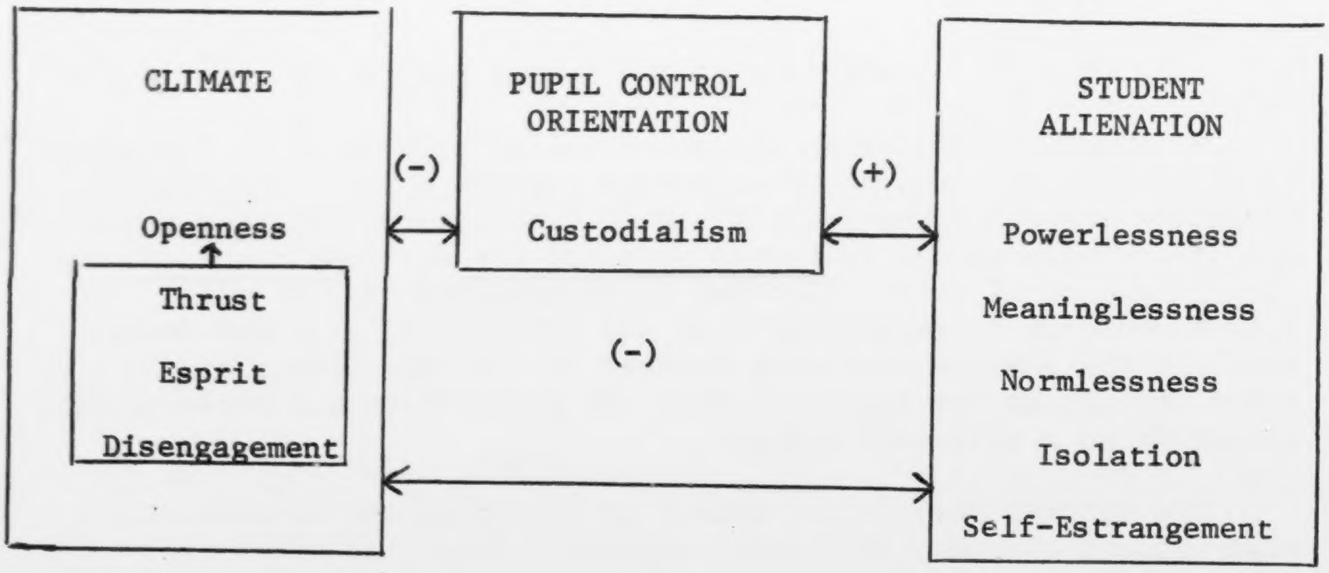
[144] Andrew W. Halpin and D. B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1963).

3-d. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less the sense of isolation of the high school students.

3-e. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less the sense of self-estrangement of the high school students.

The relationships that are presented in the foregoing fifteen hypotheses may be schematically summarized as follows:


CLIMATE
Openness
Thrust
Esprit
Disengagement
(-)
PUPIL CONTROL ORIENTATION
Custodialism
(+)
(-)
STUDENT ALIENATION
Powerlessness
Meaninglessness
Normlessness
Isolation
Self-Estrangement

Although the empirical phase of this investigation was guided by these hypotheses, other variables were examined for important relationships. For example, variables such as school size, location, racial mix of the student body, and population density of the community were analyzed in relation to organizational climate, pupil control orientation, and student alienation.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

In order to test the hypotheses of this study, it was necessary to collect data from students, faculty, and administrators in each of the forty-five high schools included in the investigation. The selection of the sample, the operational measures, and the collection and analysis of data are described in this chapter.

Selection of the School Sample

A primary objective in the selection of schools to be included in this study was to provide a diverse sample of New Jersey public secondary schools. The possibility of random selection from among all the schools in the state was rejected for two important reasons: (1) The method of data collection often involved several trips to each school--an investment of time and expense that was not deemed feasible for schools that were located in the far corners of the state and (2) It was essential that the participating schools enter the study on a voluntary basis.

The initial step in the method of selection was to list all high schools that met two basic criteria. First, in order to insure selection of schools with established staff interaction patterns, only those schools whose principals were in at least their second year were considered. Second, the only high schools considered were those within fifty miles from the home location of one of the three researchers who assisted in data collection. This restriction did not seem to be a serious limitation since twelve of the twenty-one counties in the state were represented in the research and these counties contained more than 71 per cent of the state's population.

Upon completion of the list of eligible schools, further selection was based upon two other factors: type of community and size of school. Urban, suburban, and regional schools and schools of various sizes were included in the sample. It should be observed that the United States Bureau of Census classifies areas with more than 1,500 persons per square mile as urban.[1]

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[1] U.S. Bureau of Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1969 (90th ed.; Washington, D.C.: 1969).

By this criterion, the majority of schools in the sample, indeed most schools in New Jersey, would be classified as urban. However, it is apparent that there are vast differences in the communities and types of high schools in New Jersey. In this study, regional schools are those which draw students from two or more school districts, typically in the least densely populated areas in the state. Urban schools refer to non-regional high schools with high community population density and with a substantial percentage of minority students. On the other hand, suburban schools denote non-regional schools which generally draw students from less densely populated areas and have a negligible number of minority students. If any type of school was under-represented in the sample, it was the large urban core high school with an extremely high proportion of minority students.

The procedure for enlisting the cooperation of the school was uniform throughout the project. Initially, the superintendent was contacted by telephone and was advised of the general scope and focus of the research. In most cases, the initial telephone conversation was followed by a personal interview in which the researcher described the project in more detail. After obtaining the approval of the superintendent, the researcher contacted the high school principal to explain the project and to make final arrangements for the administration of the questionnaires. In all, forty-five high schools agreed to participate in the study.

Research Instruments

Pupil Control Ideology Form (PCI)[2]

The PCI Form is a twenty-item instrument designed to measure the pupil control orientation of professional personnel in public schools (see Appendix B). Response to each item is made on a five-point Likert-type scale and is scored from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree); however, items 5 and 13 are scored in reverse. The item scores are summed to provide a total score; the higher the over-all score, the more custodial the orientation of the respondent. PCI Form scores were obtained for all respondents, and a mean PCI Form score was computed for each school.

The originators of the instrument have reported split-half reliability coefficients of the scale ranging from .91 to .95 with the application of the Spearman-Brown formula.[3] Validity of the instrument also has been supported. In one test of validity, principals were asked to read carefully descriptions of the custodial and humanistic viewpoints and to identify teachers whose ideology was most like each description. Teachers judged to be most custodial by their principals had significantly higher ($p < .01$ using t-test procedures) PCI Form scores than a like number of teachers judged to be most humanistic. Further, evidence of the validity was established by a comparison of PCI Form scores of personnel from schools known by reputation to be humanistic with scores of personnel from other schools at the same grade levels.[4]

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[2] For a more complete discussion of the development of the PCI Form, its reliability and validity, see Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology (University Park, Pa.: Penn State Studies Monograph No. 24, 1967).

Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ)

In a significant and major research effort, Halpin and Croft attempted to map the domain of organizational climate, that is, to identify and describe its dimensions and to measure them in a dependable way.[5] The result of their work was the development of the OCDQ, an instrument designed to assess the organizational climate of public schools. The OCDQ, composed of sixty-four Likert-type items, is divided into eight subtests: Disengagement, Hindrance, Esprit, Intimacy, Aloofness, Production Emphasis, Thrust, Consideration (see Appendix C). Halpin and Croft[6] defined the subtest measures as follows:

1. Disengagement refers to the teachers' tendency to be "not with it." This dimension describes a group which is "going through the motions," a group that is "not in gear" with respect to the task at hand. It corresponds to the more general concept of anomie as first described by Durkheim. In short, this subtest focuses upon the teachers' behavior in a task-oriented situation.

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[3] Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology (University Park, Pa.: Penn State Studies Monograph No. 24, 1967), p. 12.

[4] Ibid., pp. 13-14.

[5] Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools (U.S. Office of Education, No. SAE 543-8639, Final Report, 1962).

[6] Andrew W. Halpin and D. B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1963), pp. 29-32.

2. Hindrance refers to the teachers' feeling that the principal burdens them with routine duties, committee demands, and other requirements which the teachers construe as unnecessary busy-work. The teachers perceive that the principal is hindering rather than facilitating their work.

3. Esprit refers to "morale." The teachers feel that their social needs are being satisfied and that they are, at the same time, enjoying a sense of accomplishment in their job.

4. Intimacy refers to the teachers' enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other. This dimension describes a social-needs satisfaction which is not necessarily associated with task-accomplishment.

5. Aloofness refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized as formal and impersonal. He "goes by the book" and prefers to be guided by rules and policies rather than to deal with the teachers in an informal, face-to-face situation. His behavior, in brief, is universalistic rather than particularistic; nomothetic rather than idiosyncratic. To maintain this style, he keeps himself--at least, "emotionally"--at a distance from his staff.

6. Production Emphasis refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by close supervision of the staff. He is highly directive and plays the role of a "straw boss." His communication tends to go in only one direction, and he is not sensitive to feedback from the staff.

7. Thrust refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by his evident effort in trying to "move the organization." "Thrust" behavior is marked not by close supervision but by the principal's attempt to motivate the teachers through the example which he personally sets. Apparently, because he does not ask the teachers to give of themselves any more than he willingly gives of himself, his behavior, though starkly task-oriented, is, nonetheless, viewed favorably by the teachers.

8. Consideration refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by an inclination to treat the teachers "humanly," to try to do a little something for them in human terms.

The first four subtests relate to group characteristics, while the second four describe the staff perception of the behavior of the principal. Likert-type responses to the OCDQ are obtained from the principals and the teachers. After calculating the score of each respondent on each of the subtests, a school standard score is computed for each of the subtests.

Halpin and Croft constructed a profile for each of the 71 schools in their original study with the points of the profile being defined by the eight subtest scores. Factor analysis of the profiles indicated that there were six major patterns of factor loadings among the 71 profiles. It was possible to categorize each of the schools into one of the six common groups. For each of the six groups, the researchers computed a mean profile which was designated as a prototypic profile for a climate category. The six discrete climates thus devised were arranged along a rough continuum as follows: Open, Autonomous, Controlled, Familiar, Paternal, and Closed. Classification of a school into [illegible] climate category may be done mathematically. The process consists of computing the sum of the absolute differences between each of the school's subtest standard scores and each of Halpin and Croft's prototypic profile subtest scores for each of the six climates. Each sum yields a "climate similarity" score. The lowest similarity score indicates the "best" climate classification of the school in question.

The validity of the OCDQ has been tested by numerous researchers. One of the most comprehensive studies was conducted by Andrews, who used the construct validity approach. By this method a measure is considered valid to the extent that it demonstrates relationships with other measures which can be predicted in accordance with theory. Andrews compared OCDQ subtest scores with such evidence as global ratings of schools by teachers, staff characteristics, leader behavior, teacher satisfaction, principal effectiveness, rated school effectiveness, and school achievement. He concluded

> . . . that the subtests of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire provide reasonably valid measures of important aspects of the school principal's leadership, in the perspective of interaction with his staff.[7]

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[7] John H. M. Andrews, "School Organizational Climate: Some Validity Studies," Canadian Education and Research Digest, V (December, 1[illegible]5), p. 333.

Andrews indicated, however, that the vagueness of the concept "organizational climate" and of the names of the six climate types was a detraction from the validity of the OCDQ. He felt that the large number of significant relationships with other variables and the internal consistency of the subtests reflected a clear theoretical meaning, but that Halpin and Croft's admittedly arbitrary labeling of the results may not have been justified.

In a major replication of the original Halpin and Croft study, Brown[8] examined the reliability of each of the OCDQ subtests and found that reliability coefficients generally compared favorably with those of the Halpin and Croft study. Brown's research also substantiated the assignment of items to subtests and the pattern of factor analytic findings that guided the original development of the instruments. He concluded

> The OCDQ is a well constructed instrument which can and should continue to be used in research in administrative theory and in the theory of social administration. . . . While the results of this investigation (with respect to the identification of climates) were as similar to Halpin and Croft's results as one might reasonably hope for in a factor analytic replication, a conservative conclusion at this time would be that the dividing of that continuum into discrete climates (although useful for developing research hypotheses) may be refining the results further than the data warrants.[9]

The classification of schools into discrete climate types was also questioned by Watkins who found that there was an apparent weakness in the middle classifications. He stated that "Apparently, these middle climate designations more or less developed out of a chaos of perception rather than from any clearly perceived organizational climate."[10]

Halpin and Croft also expressed concern with the crudeness of the ranking of social climates on an Open--Closed continuum by the prototypic profile method. They stated

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[8] Robert J. Brown, Organizational Climate of Elementary Schools, Research Monograph No. 2 (Minneapolis: Educational Research and Development Council of the Twin Cities Metropolitan Area, Inc., 1965).

[9] Ibid., pp. 9-10.

[10] James Foster Watkins, "The OCDQ - An Application and Some Implications," Educational Administration Quarterly, IV (Spring, 1968), p. 52.

> We have said that these climates have been ranked in respect to Openness versus Closedness. But we fully realize how crude this ranking is. As is the case in most methods of ranking or scaling, we are much more confident about the climates described at each end of this listing than we are about those described in between.[11]

An alternate method of ranking schools on the climate continuum was recommended by Croft and has been used in other research.[12] This method involves summing the school's scores on the Esprit and Thrust sub-tests, then subtracting the school's score on the Disengagement sub-test. The resulting "openness score" does not provide identification of discrete climate types but does allow the ranking of schools on a more definitive Open--Closed continuum. This scoring method seems particularly suitable for use of the OCDQ in secondary schools in that several researchers have discovered a preponderance of closed schools when the prototypic profile scoring method was applied. This finding has severely limited the scope of data analysis in such studies.[13] It was deemed appropriate, therefore, to use an "openness score" for each school in the present study rather than to place schools in a climate category using profile similarity scores.

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[11] Andrew W. Halpin and D. B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1963), p. 104.

[12] James Bruce Appleberry and Wayne K. Hoy, "The Pupil Control Ideology of Professional Personnel in 'Open' and 'Closed' Elementary Schools," Educational Administration Quarterly, V (Fall, 1969), pp. 74-85; and A. Ray Helsel, Herbert A. Aurbach, and Donald J. Willower, "Teachers Perceptions of Organizational Climate and Expectations of Successful Change," The Journal of Experimental Education, XXXVIII (Fall, 1969).

[13] See for example, Emmet McWilliams, "The Organizational Climate and Certain Administrative and Personnel Variables in Selected High Schools" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Rutgers-The State University, 1967); Joseph S. Bushinger, "Organizational Climate and Its Relationship to School Dropouts" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Rutgers-The State University, 1966); Hugh Gordon Tanner, "A Study of the Relationship Between the Organizational Climate of Schools and the Social Behavior of Selected School Administrators" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Michigan, 1966).

Pupil Attitude Questionnaire

The Pupil Attitude Questionnaire (PAQ) was used in this study to assess student alienation.[14] The instrument contains sixty Likert-type items which comprise five subtests the sum of whose scores represents a measure of "Total Alienation" (see Appendix E). The subtests are designed to measure Seeman's five alienation components: Powerlessness, Meaninglessness, Normlessness, Isolation, and Self-Estrangement. These subtests have been briefly defined as follows:

> Student powerlessness refers to the student's sense of a lack of personal control over his state of affairs in school. He believes that he is being manipulated by teachers and administrators, "the system," and that there is little he personally can do to influence his future in school.
>
> Whereas powerlessness refers to a sensed inability to control outcomes, meaninglessness refers to a sensed inability to predict outcomes. The student who suffers from a sense of meaninglessness is one who lacks an understanding of the school activities in which he finds himself engaged. He is not at all sure that schooling is going to help him in his future, and he is unclear as to what he should believe about the future.
>
> Student normlessness refers to the belief that socially unapproved behaviors are required to achieve school goals. The technically most effective course of action, legitimate or not, becomes preferred to the formally prescribed conduct of the school. This type of alienated student is prone to tell teachers what they want to hear; "he plays the game." Furthermore, the violation of school rules and regulations, to the normless student, is appropriate, provided he does not get caught.
>
> The isolated student is one who does not accept the goals of the school as his own. He has a different set of priorities. He is concerned neither with completing school nor with achieving in school. He is detached from the goals of the school, and, in a word, he rejects school and all that it stands for.
>
> The self-estranged student is one who is unable to find school activities which are self-rewarding. He must find reward outside the activity in which he participates; hence, a school activity is never pursued simply for its own sake. He engages in school activities for some anticipated future reward.

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[14] Henry Kolesar, "An Empirical Study of Client Alienation in the Bureaucratic Organization" (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada, 1967).

The PAQ was developed in 1967 by Kolesar through both a pilot study and a major investigation of more than 1700 pupils in twenty Alberta, Canada high schools. One hundred sixty-four Pupil Attitude Questionnaire items were initially selected by a panel of judges as being suitable for measuring one or another of the alienation components. The items thus selected were administered to 163 Alberta high school students as part of a pilot study. The responses were subjected to three types of analysis: (1) A t-test was used to determine if each item discriminated between the quarter of students with the highest sub-scale total and the quarter with the lowest, (2) A Pearson r was computed for each item with other items and with the sub-scale total, and (3) Items not eliminated by the first two procedures were factor analyzed to determine which questions loaded most heavily on each of the sub-scale factors. After the above analysis was completed, 60 items remained in the pool of usable questions.

The 60-item scale was then administered to a group of 92 students on two occasions separated by a one-week time interval. Coefficients of stability were calculated between the two sets of responses on each of the subtests and on the total scale. The results were significantly different from zero (0.73, 0.74, 0.71, 0.63, 0.66 and 0.79).

Scores on each of the sub-scales were also correlated with scores on the other sub-scales and on the total scale. The results of these correlations were all positive and significant except the correlation between the meaninglessness and isolation sub-scales.

Internal consistency was determined by correlating the item responses of 1764 students with sub-scale and total scale scores. These data were factor analyzed, and the result provided strong support for the item by sub-scale placement.

Four types of validity verification were provided: content validity, face validity, factorial validity and construct validity. The adequacy of content of the instrument was verified in two ways. A large number of items representing a variety of relationships between the pupil and his school were used in the pilot study. A multiple correlational analysis of the predictive validity of combinations of items indicated that maximum validity was achieved for each sub-scale with four to six items. This number was increased to ten to fourteen to insure a reasonable degree of scale reliability.

Face validity, what the test appears to measure, was provided by a panel of fourteen judges who were knowledgeable in educational matters. Factorial validity, correlations between individual response items and a factor common to a group of items, was determined by several factor analyses. The elimination or modification of individual items throughout the item-analysis procedure resulted in five sub-scale groups which were factorially pure.

Finally, construct validity was determined by correlating what judges said about a group of students with what their test results indicated. The PAQ was administered to 97 students in one high school. Ten students with the highest alienation scores, ten with median scores, and ten with the lowest score were identified by name. The list of the thirty names was submitted to five classroom teachers who knew the students. The teachers ranked the students high, medium, or low on alienation from school. Spearman rho's were claculated between the ranking of pupils provided by the scale, the rankings given by each teacher, and the combination of the rankings of the five teachers. All of the computed rho's were significant beyond the .001 level. Coefficients of concordance were also calculated, and the degree of agreement with the teachers' ratings was found to be significant at the .001 level.[15]

Data Collection

Faculty Data

The preferred method for administering and collecting the PCI and OCDQ forms from the professional staff was for the researcher to attend a regularly scheduled faculty meeting of the school. This procedure was used in all but three schools in the sample. In those three schools, where regular faculty meetings were "never" held, the researcher spent the entire day in the faculty lounge and administered the questionnaires to small groups during their preparation periods. When these situations occurred, the principal reminded the staff of the activity by intercom announcements, and virtually complete participation and cooperation were apparent in each case.

All administration of both the OCDQ and the PCI were prefaced by a general description of the research. Care was exercised that descriptions and explanations were uniform and brief. The exact statement that was used in the administration is presented in Appendixes B and C. A firm reassurance of anonymity was always given at the close of the instructions. After the instructions were given, the principal left the meeting to complete his questionnaire in the privacy of his office. Special care was taken that only the researcher collected and handled the completed questionnaires. In this fashion, data were collected from nearly 3,000 teachers and administrators in the sample.

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[15] Henry Kolesar, "Pupil Attitude Questionnaire" (unpublished technical report, December, 1967).

Student Data

Since it was not feasible to collect data from all the students in all the schools, the student population of each school was sampled. The student sample comprised at least ten percent of the students from each grade level of every school. In those schools where scheduling and facilities permitted, a random sample of students was drawn from class rosters. The students thus selected reported to the auditorium or lunchroom for mass administration of the PAQ. Variations on this method were necessary in some cases where schools could not schedule such a procedure. The alternate method consisted of selection of individual classes that represented heterogeneous groupings of students. It was usually necessary for the researcher to spend a large part of the day in each school to collect an adequate sample; however, on two occasions a team of trained researchers entered schools and simultaneously collected data from a number of classes. In all, over 8,600 students in forty-five high schools completed and returned usable PAQ forms along with responses to selected demographic questions.

Other Data

Data were also collected from the principals and from the New Jersey State Department of Education concerning selected demographic characteristics of the schools and the communities in which they were located. For example, information was gathered with regard to staff size, student enrollment, percentage of minority pupils and teachers, population density of the community, teacher turnover rate, and equalized valuation per pupil.

Treatment of Data

Scoring the Instruments

Responses to the questionnaires were keypunched directly from the teacher and student questionnaires onto IBM cards and then verified. The scoring of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) was accomplished through utilization of a program originally developed by Don B. Croft and modified for use on the IBM 360-67 computer. The program produces individual and school scores for each subtest, school climate similarity scores, and openness scores for each school.

Similarly, the Pupil Attitude Questionnaire (PAQ) and the Pupil Control Ideology Form (PCI) were scored with the use of two computer scoring programs developed at Rutgers University.[16] The PAQ program output includes individual sub-scale and total alienation scores for each student as well as subtest and total alienation averages for each school. Likewise, the PCI program output includes a PCI score for each professional staff member as well as a mean PCI score for each school. Personal demographic data were also gathered from each student and faculty respondent and were punched on the IBM card along with the coded questionnaire responses. In addition, information collected from principals and from the State Department of Education concerning characteristics of schools was also codified, and key punched.

Data Analysis

Mean PCI scores, mean "openness" scores, and mean PAQ scores were computed for each school. Then Pearson product-moment correlations were employed to test the major hypotheses of this study. Analysis of variance procedures were also used to investigate certain other relationships, and step-wise multiple regression analysis was utilized to explore the relationship between the dimensions of student alienation and a series of school characteristics, including the possible interactive effects of school characteristics on aspects of alienation. Step-wise regression analysis was also used to investigate the best predictor variables associated with schools with a humanistic pupil control orientation.

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[16] Dr. Keith Edwards and Mr. Geoffrey Isherwood, both of Rutgers University, were instrumental in the development of the PAQ and PCI scoring programs.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) and Pupil Control Ideology Form (PCI) were administered to the professional personnel of forty-five high schools in New Jersey. Responses to the Pupil Attitude Questionnaire were also collected from a sample of students in each of these forty-five schools; in all 2,875 teachers and administrators and 8,601 students responded to the research instruments.

The first section of this chapter contains a brief discussion of "openness" of the climate of high schools and a report of the results of the empirical tests of the basic hypotheses which guided the study. Numerous other relationships which were not original to this study were also investigated and tested, and aspects of organizational climate in addition to "openness" were examined with respect to various dimensions of student alienation. The final section of the chapter focuses upon the use of multiple regression analysis to examine the combined influence of OCDQ, PCI, and demographic variables as well as the interactive effects of OCDQ and PCI terms in the prediction of aspects of student alienation.

"Openness" of School Climate

Halpin and Croft were able, through factor analytic methods, to identify six discrete school profiles.[1] These profiles were defined by the pattern of scores that a school received on each of the eight OCDQ subtests and were arranged on a rough continuum between open and closed. The six climate categories, that were obtained from the seventy-one schools originally studied by Halpin and Croft, provided, in effect, the norms for school climate classification used by literally dozens of researchers in subsequent climate studies.

The difficulties and problems of using the prototypic profile method to classify schools into discrete climate types, especially large secondary schools, have already been discussed.[2] An alternative method of determining the "openness" of the school climate has been recommended by Croft and has been employed in a number of researches. This latter method utilized the three OCDQ subtests which comprised the "Openness" factor, Factor I, in the original OCDQ study.[3] The Esprit and Thrust subtest scores (both of which are positive components of openness) are summed, and the Disengagement score (a negative aspect of openness or alternately a characteristic of closedness) is subtracted. The procedure produces an "openness" score which may readily be compared to scores of other schools.

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[1] Andrew W. Halpin and D. B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1963).

The "openness score" technique was used in this investigation because it appeared to provide a more suitable method for measuring the relative openness of the climate of large high schools than the prototypic profile method. This decision seems to have been justified by the data in the present study. Openness scores of the forty-five schools ranged from 16.4 to 54.3, with a mean of 31.4, a standard deviation of 8.64, and a median of 31.7. In a word, the distribution of the openness scores did seem to provide an adequate range for data analysis.

Testing the Hypotheses

Product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to test the major hypotheses of this study. The common practice of setting the probability of a Type I error at .05 was adopted in this study. Furthermore, since a theoretical rationale was developed and the direction of the relationships predicted, one-tailed tests were used to determine the level of significance.

H.1. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school.

Computation of a coefficient of correlation between mean school openness scores and mean pupil control orientation scores yielded an $r=-.325$ ($p < .05$); therefore, the first hypothesis of this study was accepted. Two related hypotheses were also tested.

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[2] See Chapter III.

[3] Andrew W. Halpin and D. B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1963), pp. 71-76.

1-a. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less custodial the pupil control orientation of the principal.

1-b. The more open the organizational climate of the high school, the less custodial the pupil control orientation of the teachers.

Although there was some tendency for openness of schools to be inversely related to the custodialism of the principal's pupil control ideology, the relationship was not significant ($r = -.16$, $p > .05$); hence, the hypothesis was not accepted. However, as predicted, the mean openness scores of schools and the mean pupil control ideology scores of teachers were significantly related ($r = -.307$, $p < .05$); the more open the climate, the less custodial the pupil control ideology of teachers.

The next set of hypotheses tested dealt with the relationships between the pupil control orientation of high schools and aspects of student alienation.

H.2. The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the total alienation of the high school students.

In order to test this hypothesis, mean composite scores on student alienation were correlated with the mean school pupil control orientation scores for the forty-five schools in the sample. School custodialism in pupil control orientation did correlate significantly with the degree of student alienation in schools ($r = .351$, $p < .05$).

Since alienation is a multi-dimensional concept, more specific hypotheses dealing with various dimensions of student alienation were tested.

2-a. The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the sense of normlessness of the high school students.

This hypothesis was also supported. School custodialism and school normlessness correlated significantly ($r = .417$, $p < .01$).

2-b. The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the sense of powerlessness of the high school students.

Similarly, student powerlessness and school custodialism were positively correlated with each other; computation of a coefficient of correlation between mean school custodialism and mean school student powerlessness produced an $r = .374$ ($p < .05$).

2-c. The more custodial the pupil control orientations of the high school, the greater the sense of meaninglessness of high school students.

Contrary to the hypothesis and in contrast to the other relationships, this hypothesis was not supported. Indeed, the correlational coefficient was in a direction opposite to that predicted ($r = -.273$, $p > .05$).

2-d. The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the sense of isolation of the high school students.

The analysis yielded a coefficient of correlation of .311 ($p < .05$); hence, the hypothesis was accepted.

2-e. The more custodial the pupil control orientation of the high school, the greater the sense of self-estrangement of the high school students.

Although the relationship between mean school custodialism and mean student self-estrangement for schools was in the predicted direction, the coefficient correlation of .197 was not significant at the .05 level; hence, the hypothesis was not accepted.

The third series of hypotheses of this study focused upon the relationship between the openness of the school climate and variants of student alienation.

H.3. The more open the climate of the high school, the less the sense of total alienation of high school students.

A coefficient of correlation between mean school openness scores and mean total student alienation scores was computed to test this relationship. Openness scores did correlate significantly and inversely with total alienation scores ($r = -.336$, $p < .05$); hence, the hypothesis was accepted.

3-a. The more open the climate of the high school, the less the sense of normlessness of high school students.

3-b. The more open the climate of the high school, the less the sense of powerlessness of the high school students.

These two hypotheses, like the previous one, were confirmed. A coefficient of correlation of -.44 was significant beyond the .01 level; school openness and school normlessness of students varied inversely. Similarly, school openness and student sense of powerlessness were related as predicted ($r = -.279$, $p < .05$).

3-c. The more open the climate of the high school, the less the sense of meaninglessness of the high school students.

This hypothesis was not supported by the findings of the study. The coefficient of correlation between openness and meaninglessness indicated a lack of relationship between the two measures ($r = .053$, $p > .05$); hence, the hypothesis could not be accepted.

3-d. The more open the climate of the high school, the less the sense of isolation of the high school students.

3-e. The more open the climate of the high school, the less the sense of self-estrangement of the high school students.

Finally, neither of these last two hypotheses was confirmed. Although, in both cases, the relationships were in the predicted direction, neither was significant. The coefficient of correlation for the openness-isolation prediction was $r = -.208$ ($p > .05$), while the openness-self-estrangement correlation was $r = -.180$ ($p > .05$).

Correlations Among Subtest Measures

Although only three of the OCDQ subtests were utilized in obtaining the openness score, the entire instrument was administered to virtually all professional personnel in each of the forty-five schools in the sample. In addition to the correlation coefficients reported above between mean school openness scores and mean school PAQ subtest scores, correlations were computed among the eight OCDQ subtests and the five PAQ subtests and the total alienation score. These coefficients are reported in Table 1.

Inspection of the data presented in Table 1 reveals that there were ten significant relationships between OCDQ dimensions and PAQ subtests and total alienation scale measures. It is of further interest to note that two of the PAQ subtests (Isolation and Self-Estrangement) and three of the OCDQ measures (Esprit, Intimacy, and Production Emphasis) obtained no significant relationships with other measures.

TABLE 1

COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN MEAN SCHOOL OCDQ, PCI, AND PAQ SCORES

	Norm-lessness	Isolation	Power-lessness	Meaning-lessness	Self-Estrangement	Total Alienation
Disengagement	.477**	.256	.286	.056	.226	.389*
Hindrance	.347*	.147	.354*	.036	.293	.385*
Esprit	-.261	-.124	.065	.169	-.007	-.029
Intimacy	-.228	-.242	.033	.156	-.027	-.055
Aloofness	.098	.080	-.051	-.388*	-.132	-.094
Production Emphasis	.060	.004	.062	.082	-.079	.045
Thrust	-.336*	-.139	-.354*	.024	-.170	-.339*
Consideration	-.229	.054	-.323*	-.051	-.100	-.267
Openness[a]	-.440**	-.208	-.279*	.053	-.180	-.336*
Custodialism[a]	.417**	.311*	.374*	-.273	.197	.351*

[a] Since predictions were made concerning the direction of the relationships, one-tailed tests were used.

*p <.05

**p <.01

N = 45

Testing Other Relationships

The data of the present study also provided a basis (1) for testing other hypotheses which have been proposed in the literature, but not tested, (2) for re-testing certain relationships which have been tested in other research settings, and (3) for exploring relationships which have been neither predicted nor tested.

Carver and Sergiovanni have suggested that the OCDQ may not provide a valid measure of the organizational climates of large high schools.[4] They speculate that the complex nature of secondary schools mitigates against valid perceptions of climate where school size exceeds twenty-five to thirty teachers. They further suggest that the OCDQ measure might better reflect the climate of large secondary schools if the respondents were limited to certain "key communicators" such as department chairmen. Such individuals might have more valid perceptions regarding the climate of the school. Data available in the present study permitted the examination of the department chairmen's perceptions of organizational climate compared to the climate as described by the entire professional staff.

OCDQ responses were obtained from at least three department chairmen in thirty-six of the forty-five schools in the sample. Analysis of variance tests were computed between the total faculty scores and department chairmen scores for each of the OCDQ subtests and for the openness score in the thirty-six schools. Of the nine F ratios computed, only one was significant (See Table 2). The scores of the department chairmen were significantly higher ($F = 12.84$, $p < .01$) on the Consideration subtest than were those of the total faculty. The analysis of variance data for these relationships are summarized in the Appendix G. There seems to be little difference between the way department heads perceived the climate and the climate as described by the entire professional staff.

Halpin in a recent discussion of organizational climate speculates that both human density and school size may be related to school climate.[5] Data in the present study provided the opportunity to begin to explore these relationships. The population density of the community was found to be significantly and inversely related

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[4] Fred D. Carver and Thomas J. Sergiovanni, "Some Notes on the OCDQ," The Journal of Educational Administration, VII, No. 1 (May, 1969), p. 79.

[5] Andrew W. Halpin, "Change and Organizational Climate," The Journal of Educational Administration, V (May, 1967), pp. 5-25.

TABLE 2

A COMPARISON OF SCHOOL CLIMATE CHARACTERISTICS
AS DESCRIBED BY THE ENTIRE PROFESSIONAL STAFF
AND DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN

OCDQ Subtest	Mean Score for Chairmen	Standard Deviation	Mean Score for Staff	Standard Deviation	F
Disengagement	58.39	5.45	59.25	3.23	.66
Hindrance	51.44	6.40	53.47	3.91	2.63
Esprit	44.69	5.70	45.19	2.95	.22
Intimacy	52.56	4.95	53.64	2.63	1.35
Aloofness	48.83	5.57	49.06	3.75	.04
Production Emphasis	49.58	4.77	48.97	3.04	.42
Consideration	51.89	4.89	48.53	2.79	12.84**
Thrust	46.58	5.66	45.94	4.62	.28
Openness	32.83	12.20	31.84	8.94	.16

n = 36
**p <.01

to the "openness" of the school climate (r = -.326, p <.05); the greater the population density, the less "open" (or more closed) the climate. Esprit (r = -.468, p <.01), intimacy (r = -.440, p <.01), and aloofness (r = .459, p <.01) were also related to the population density of the community.

With respect to the relationship between school size and school climate, the relationships are neither as clear nor as strong. School size, measured in terms of either number of students or number of professional staff, was not significantly related to "openness" of the school climate (r = -.188 and r = -.157 respectively). However, the school size (number of pupils) was inversely related to consideration (r = -.339, p <.05) and positively related to aloofness (r = .327, p <.05). Likewise, school size measured in terms of professional staff, was inversely related to consideration (r = -.346, p <.05).

In an early study of pupil control orientation, Willower, Eidell and Hoy hypothesized that those directly responsible for the control of unselected clients would be more custodial in their control ideology than those less directly responsible for client control.[6] This led to the prediction that teachers would be more custodial in their pupil control ideology than principals, a prediction confirmed in their study. Since we had data on the pupil control ideology of forty-five secondary principals and the pupil control ideology of their faculty, we decided to re-test the original prediction with data from the present study. Again, the prediction was confirmed; principals were more humanistic in the pupil control orientation than teachers (F = 42.05, p <.005). The data are summarized in Table 3.

Besag has suggested that pupils between the ages of 12 and 14 may tend to be somewhat more alienated than older students.[7] Of the forty-five schools in the sample, thirty-nine had ninth grades. In order to examine the possible relationship between grade level and average student alienation, a series of analyses of variance were performed with the data in the present study. Mean school scores for each grade on all but one aspect of alienation did not

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[6] Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology (University Park, Pa.: Penn State Studies Monograph No. 24, 1967).

[7] Frank P. Besag, Alienation and Education: An Empirical Approach (Buffalo, N.Y.: Hertillon Press, 1966), p. 96.

TABLE 3

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY OF TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

	Teachers	Principals
Number	45	45
Mean	55.36	48.38
Standard Deviation	2.84	6.65

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	1	1098.26	1098.26	42.05***
Within Groups	88	2298.48	26.12	
Total	89	3396.74		

***p <.005

differ significantly from each other. Only with respect to isolation was there a significant difference between grade level and average degree of alienation ($F = 6.09$, $p < .05$). In this instance, seniors apparently had less a sense of isolation than other students (See Table 4). Complete analysis of variance and summary data for this entire series of tests are found in Appendix G.

Kolesar's study of bureaucracy and student alienation is one of the few studies to employ the Pupil Attitude Inventory in the study of student alienation.[8] His study focused upon student alienation in Canadian high schools. It is interesting to compare the data on student alienation in the present study with data from the Kolesar study. The mean scores on each dimension of alienation are similar. These data are summarized in Table 5.

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[8] Henry Kolesar, "An Empirical Study of Client Alienation in Bureaucratic Organizations" (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada, 1967).

TABLE 4

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GRADE LEVEL AND STUDENT SENSE OF ISOLATION

	Ninth Grade	Tenth Grade	Eleventh Grade	Twelfth Grade
Number	39	39	39	39
Mean	25.34	25.13	24.47	23.51
Standard Deviation	.75	.79	.85	3.95

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	3	79.89	26.83	6.09*
Within Groups	152	665.09	4.38	
Total	155	744.98		

*p <.05

TABLE 5

A COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES OF STUDENTS ON THE ALIENATION SUBSCALES AND TOTAL ALIENATION SCALE FOR THE KOLESAR STUDY AND THE PRESENT STUDY

Alienation Dimension	Mean for Kolesar Study (n = 1764)	Mean for Present Study (n = 8601)
Powerlessness	37.041	34.502
Self-Estrangement	35.726	36.442
Normlessness	34.512	34.811
Meaninglessness	35.832	35.542
Isolation	24.463	24.807
Total Alienation	167.574	166.065

It is of further interest to note the similarity of the correlation matrices of the two studies with respect to the interrelationships of the subscale and total scale scores on alienation. These data are presented in Tables 6 and 7.

TABLE 6

CORRELATIONS OF SCORES FOR EACH ALIENATION SUBSCALE AND FOR THE TOTAL SCALE IN THE KOLESAR STUDY

(n = 1764)

	N	I	P	M	SE	TA
Normlessness	1.000	.282	.459	.144	.549	.771
Isolation		1.000	.195	.045	.319	.443
Powerlessness			1.000	.144	.521	.771
Meaninglessness				1.000	.134	.448
Self-Estrangement					1.000	.786
Total Alienation						1.000

TABLE 7

CORRELATIONS OF SCORES FOR EACH ALIENATION SUBSCALE AND FOR THE TOTAL SCALE IN THE PRESENT STUDY[9]

(n = 8601)

Normlessness	1.000	.353	.474	.118	.604	.809
Isolation		1.000	.163	.059	.296	.448
Powerlessness			1.000	.135	.526	.761
Meaninglessness				1.000	.147	.418
Self-Estrangement					1.000	.801
Total Alienation						1.000

[9] It should be noted that the correlations in this matrix are correlations between *individual* scores. The other correlations reported in this study are correlations between mean *school* scores for the respective variables.

Multiple Regression Analyses

Given the emphasis on the concept of alienation in this study, it was decided to explore the relationship between the dimensions of alienation and a series of school characteristics. More specifically, we decided to use step-wise multiple regression analysis to examine the contribution of successive OCDQ and PCI terms in the development of a regression equation to predict various aspects of alienation. The analysis began with the standard use of step-wise regression. The first predictor variable selected was the one that correlated highest with the criterion; the next variable added was the one that, in concert with the first, best predicted the criterion, and so on. Each successive predictor variable which was added provided the greatest reduction in the error sum of squares; that is, it was the variable which had highest partial correlations with the dependent variable (alienation) partialed on the predictors already in the equation. The cut-off level of the partial F for inclusion in the equation was $F(3, 41, .05) = 2.83$.

In this particular instance the predictor variables included in the analysis were disengagement, hindrance, esprit, intimacy, aloofness, production emphasis, thrust, consideration, and custodialism. Six step-wise regressions were performed to develop prediction equations for normlessness, isolation, powerlessness, meaninglessness, self-estrangement, and total student alienation. The relevant data are summarized in Table 8.

In this analysis, student normlessness was best predicted by disengagement and custodialism ($R = .565$, $p < .01$). Similarly, disengagement and custodialism were the predictor variables for student sense of isolation with consideration acting as a suppressor variable ($R = .437$, $p < .05$).[10] A multiple R of .585 ($p < .01$) was obtained between student sense of powerlessness and custodialism, hindrance, esprit, and intimacy; in this case, esprit and intimacy appear to be suppressor variables. The prediction of meaninglessness is somewhat surprising since the predictor variables tend to be related to student sense of meaninglessness in a direction opposite to that which was conceptually expected. The more the aloofness of the staff and the more the custodialism in pupil control orientation, the less the student sense of meaninglessness. With consideration acting again as a suppressor variable, an $R = .525$ ($p < .01$) was obtained

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[10] A suppressor variable is one that essentially correlates zero with the criterion, but has high correlations with other predictor variables. For a good discussion of the concept of suppressor variables, see Ardie Lubin, "Some Formulae for Use with Suppressor Variables," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XVII (Summer, 1967), pp. 286-96.

TABLE 8

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS SHOWING THE RELATIONSHIP OF SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS TO STUDENT ALIENATION CRITERIA

Criterion Variable		Predictor Variables				Constant	Final R	R^2	Overall F
Normlessness		Disengagement	Custodialism						
	beta	.209	.194			11.63	.565	.319	9.84**
	R	.477	.565						
Isolation		Custodialism	Disengagement	(Consideration)^s					
	beta	.062	.052	.057		15.5	.437	.191	3.23*
	R	.311	.360	.437					
Powerlessness		Custodialism	Hindrance	(Esprit)	(Intimacy)				
	beta	.392	.363	.271	.258	-32.71	.585	.343	5.22**
	R	.374	.463	.548	.586				
Meaninglessness		Aloofness	(Consideration)	Custodialism					
	beta	-.134	-.138	-.089		53.76	.525	.276	5.20**
	R	.388	.476	.525					
Self-Estrangement		Hindrance							
	beta	.103				30.91	.293	.086	4.03 (n.s.)
	R	.293							
Total Alienation		Disengagement	Custodialism	(Aloofness)	Thrust				
	beta	.301	.638	-.499	-.359	153.67	.556	.309	4.47**
	R	.389	.467	.522	.556				

* $p < .05$

**$p < .01$

s = variables in parenthesis are suppressor variables

between normlessness and aloofness, consideration, and custodialism. None of the OCDQ and PCI measures predicted self-estrangement at a significant level. Total alienation was best predicted by disengagement, custodialism, aloofness, and thrust ($R = .556$, $p <.01$) with aloofness as a suppressor variable.

In order to explore the possible influence of interactive and curvilinear terms in the development of regression equations predicting aspects of alienation, a series of step-wise regression analyses was performed for each dimension of alienation.[11] Unlike the standard use of step-wise regression, the order of the predictor variables was fixed, and the analysis was performed in five steps. Custodialism and the OCDQ measures were entered into the equation first in order to partial out the linear effects of these variables. Then the interactive term (PCIxOCDQ) was added and tested to determine if it provided a significant increase in prediction. Next the quadratic term, custodialism squared, was added and similarly tested, and finally, the OCDQ subtest squared term was added which completed the full five-predictor model. This procedure was used for each OCDQ subtest and for each variant of alienation: 48 regression analyses in all. The results are summarized in Tables 9-14.

Only three interactive terms had significant partial F-values ($p <.05$): (PCIxAloofness) with meaninglessness, (PCIxEsprit) with Self-estrangement, and (PCIxEsprit) with total alienation. In addition, only two quadratic terms, aloofness squared with powerlessness and aloofness squared with total alienation, had significant partial F-values. Due to the relatively small number of schools in the sample ($n=45$) and, moreover, due to the lack of consistent significant relationship of interactive and non-linear terms to alienation, the interactive and quadratic terms were excluded from subsequent analysis. That is, the linear additive regression model was assumed to be an adequate representation of the data.

In addition to the conceptual features of schools measured by the OCDQ subtests and the PCI Form, data were collected concerning certain demographic characteristics of the schools and communities in which they were located. Particular attention was focused upon the type of school (urban, suburban, regional), staff size of the school, student enrollment, population density of the community, teacher turnover rate, wealth of the community, percentage of

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[11] This analysis is not unlike that used by Gary J. Anderson, "Effects of Classroom Social Climate on Individual Learning," American Educational Research Journal, VII (March, 1970), pp. 135-51.

TABLE 9

THE RELATIONSHIP OF CUSTODIALISM (PCI), OCDQ DIMENSIONS, AND THEIR INTERACTIVE AND QUADRATIC TERMS TO NORMLESSNESS

OCDQ Scale	PCI	OCDQ	PXO	PCI^2	OCDQ^2	F	R^2 in %
Production Emphasis	.42**	.42	---	---	.44	3.37*	19.79
Thrust	.42**	.47	.47	---	.48	2.99*	23.00
Consideration	.42**	.43	.43	---	---	3.18*	18.86
Disengagement	.42**	.56**	.57	---	---	6.45**	32.05
Hindrance	.42**	.49*	.49	---	.51	3.49*	25.88
Esprit	.42**	.46	.52	---	.54	4.04**	28.76
Intimacy	.42**	.43	.44	---	---	3.24*	19.16
Aloofness	.42**	.42	.42	---	.48	2.91*	22.59

* $p < .05$
**$p < .01$
Note: The values shown in Tables 9-14 are the multiple correlation coefficients.

TABLE 10

THE RELATIONSHIP OF CUSTODIALISM (PCI), OCDQ DIMENSIONS, AND THEIR INTERACTIVE AND QUADRATIC TERMS TO ISOLATION

OCDQ Scale	PCI	OCDQ	PXO	PCI^2	$OCDQ^2$	F	R^2 in %
Production Emphasis	.31*	.32	---	---	.34	1.74	11.26
Thrust	.31*	.31	.40	---	.40	1.90	16.01
Consideration	.31*	.35	.41	---	---	2.69	16.47
Disengagement	.31*	.36	.41	---	---	2.70	16.48
Hindrance	.31*	.32	.42	---	.42	2.19	17.99
Esprit	.31*	.32	.32	---	.33	1.21	10.79
Intimacy	.31*	.35	.35	---	---	1.96	12.56
Aloofness	.31*	.31	.39	---	.43	2.30	18.73

* $p < .05$
**$p < .01$

TABLE 11

THE RELATIONSHIP OF CUSTODIALISM (PCI),
OCDQ DIMENSIONS, AND THEIR INTERACTIVE
AND QUADRATIC TERMS TO POWERLESSNESS

OCDQ Scale	PCI	OCDQ	PXO	PCI^2	$OCDQ^2$	F	R^2 in %
Production Emphasis	.37*	.37	---	---	.45	3.38*	19.84
Thrust	.37*	.45	.45	---	.47	2.86*	22.26
Consideration	.37*	.44	.44	---	---	3.23*	19.06
Disengagement	.37*	.42	.44	---	---	3.21*	19.00
Hindrance	.37*	.46*	.46	---	.49	3.18*	24.13
Esprit	.37*	.40	.44	---	.50	3.25*	24.54
Intimacy	.37*	.40	.40	---	---	2.65	16.23
Aloofness	.37*	.41	.42	---	.51*	3.51*	26.00

* $p < .05$
**$p < .01$

TABLE 12

THE RELATIONSHIP OF CUSTODIALISM (PCI),
OCDQ DIMENSIONS, AND THEIR INTERACTIVE
AND QUADRATIC TERMS TO MEANINGLESSNESS

OCDQ Scale	PCI	OCDQ	PXO	PCI^2	$OCDQ^2$	F	R^2 in %
Production Emphasis	.27	.31	---	---	.34	1.74	11.27
Thrust	.27	.28	.28	---	.32	1.17	10.45
Consideration	.27	.30	.34	---	---	1.81	11.71
Disengagement	.27	.30	.31	---	---	1.48	9.78
Hindrance	.27	.29	.35	---	.36	1.52	13.21
Esprit	.27	.30	.38	---	.38	1.71	14.63
Intimacy	.27	.29	.33	---	---	1.66	10.82
Aloofness	.27	.42*	.51*	---	.51	3.49*	25.88

* $p < .05$
**$p < .01$

TABLE 13

THE RELATIONSHIP OF CUSTODIALISM (PCI), OCDQ DIMENSIONS, AND THEIR INTERACTIVE AND QUADRATIC TERMS TO SELF-ESTRANGEMENT

OCDQ Scale	PCI	OCDQ	PXO	PCI^2	$OCDQ^2$	F	R^2 in %
Production Emphasis	.20	.24	---	---	.25	0.88	6.08
Thrust	.20	.23	.25	---	.31	1.04	9.39
Consideration	.20	.20	.22	---	---	0.67	4.69
Disengagement	.20	.27	.28	---	---	1.20	8.08
Hindrance	.20	.32	.32	---	.32	1.18	10.53
Esprit	.20	.20	.37*	---	.39	1.80	15.22
Intimacy	.20	.20	.21	---	---	0.63	4.37
Aloofness	.20	.28	.29	---	.38	1.71	14.56

* $p < .05$
**$p < .01$

TABLE 14

THE RELATIONSHIP OF CUSTODIALISM (PCI), OCDQ DIMENSIONS, AND THEIR INTERACTIVE AND QUADRATIC TERMS TO TOTAL ALIENATION

OCDQ Scale	PCI	OCDQ	PXO	PCI^2	$OCDQ^2$	F	R^2 in %
Production Emphasis	.35*	.35	---	---	.37	2.17	13.69
Thrust	.35*	.43	.43	---	.46	2.69*	21.16
Consideration	.35*	.39	.39	---	---	2.50	15.47
Disengagement	.35*	.47*	.47	---	---	3.90*	22.21
Hindrance	.35*	.47*	.47	---	.47	2.87*	22.31
Esprit	.35*	.35	.46*	---	.46	2.67*	21.08
Intimacy	.35*	.35	.37	---	---	2.11	13.39
Aloofness	.35*	.40	.42	---	.51*	3.61*	26.50

* $p<.05$

**$p<.01$

minority teachers, and percentage of minority students. A series of standard step-wise regression analyses were performed using the demographic variables as predictors and using the OCDQ dimensions, alienation dimensions, and custodialism as criterion variables. The results are summarized in Tables 15 and 16.

An examination of the regression analyses showing the relationship of demographic characteristics and aspects of student alienation indicated that none of the demographic characteristics correlated significantly with student sense of powerlessness. Student enrollment combined with the rate of teacher turnover to provide the "best" predictors of student sense of isolation: the greater the teacher turnover rate and the larger the student enrollment, the greater the sense of isolation ($R = .467$, $p < .01$). Similarly, two variables entered the regression equation to predict self-estrangement. Student self-estrangement was negatively related to percentage of minority students and positively related to the staff size of the school ($R = .462$, $p < .01$); the smaller the percentage of minority students and the larger the staff size, the greater the self-estrangement. Student sense of meaninglessness was best predicted by percentage of minority students and type of school (X_2);[12] that

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[12] School type was a nominal variable consisting of three categories--urban, suburban, and regional. Such a variable may be included in regression analysis by the construction of "dummy" variables. In order to account for three distinct categories, two dummy variables, X_1 and X_2, uniquely distinguish between the three types of schools.

	X_1	X_2
Urban	0	1
Suburban	0	0
Regional	1	0

If X_1 enters the regression equation, the mean value of the dependent variable is different for regional schools than non-regional schools, and if the regression weight for X_1 is positive, the mean for regional schools is higher. Similarly, if X_2 enters the equation and its regression weight is positive, then the mean for urban schools is higher than the mean for non-urban schools. Finally, if both X_1 and X_2 enter the equation, then the mean value of the dependent variable is different for suburban schools than non-suburban schools. For a further discussion of the construction of "dummy" variables, see N. R. Draper and H. Smith, Applied Regression Analysis (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966), pp. 134-42.

TABLE 15

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS SHOWING THE RELATIONSHIP OF DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS TO STUDENT ALIENATION CRITERIA

Criterion Variable		Predictor Variables				Constant	R	R^2	F
Normlessness		X_3	X_7	X_5	$(X_2)^s$				
	beta	.023	.009	.006	-1.638	30.29	.559	.313	4.55**
	R	.279	.400	.485	.559				
Isolation		X_4	X_6						
	beta	.0006	.023			23.57	.467	.218	5.86**
	R	.402	.467						
Powerlessness									
	beta	NONE				-----	----	----	
	R								
Meaninglessness		X_2	X_9						
	beta	-1.077	-2.526			35.95	.684	.468	18.46**
	R	.648	.684						
Self-Estrangement		X_9	X_3						
	beta	-4.365	.014			35.56	.462	.213	5.69**
	R	.362	.462						
Total Alienation		X_7	X_2	X_3	(X_5)				
	beta	.021	-7.995	.073	.022	152.72	.576	.332	4.96**
	R	.319	.404	.501	.576				

X_1 = Regional vs. Non-regional Schools
X_2 = Urban vs. Non-urban Schools
X_3 = Staff Size
X_4 = Student Enrollment
X_5 = Population Density of Community
X_6 = Teacher Turnover Rate
X_7 = Equalized Valuation per Student

X_8 = Percentage of Minority Teachers
X_9 = Percentage of Minority Pupils
* p <.05
**p <.01
s = variables in parenthesis are suppressor variables

TABLE 16

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS SHOWING THE RELATIONSHIP OF DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS TO SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS

Criterion Variable		Predictor Variables			Constant	R	R^2	F
Disengagement		X_8						
	beta	34.107			58.77	.258	.067	3.07 (n.s.)
	R	.258						
Hindrance		X_1	$(X_5)^s$					
	beta	3.123	.011		52.10	.369	.136	3.31*
	R	.251	.369					
Esprit		X_5	X_6					
	beta	-.014	-.117		48.54	.522	.273	7.87**
	R	.469	.522					
Intimacy		X_5	X_7	(X_3)				
	beta	-.013	-.008	.022	55.30	.590	.348	7.30**
	R	.440	.543	.590				
Aloofness		X_2						
	beta	5.386			47.71	.585	.342	22.35**
	R	.585						
Production Emphasis		X_3						
	beta	-.029			51.69	.274	.0750	3.49 (n.s.)
	R	.274						
Thrust	beta							
	R	NONE			-----	----	----	----
Consideration		X_6	X_3					
	beta	.121	-.025		47.92	.427	.182	4.68*
	R	.347	.427					

TABLE 16 (Continued)

Criterion Variable	Predictor Variables		Constant	R	R^2	F
Openness		X_5				
	beta	-.027	33.42	.326	.107	5.13*
	R	.326				
Custodialism		X_2				
	beta	2.818	54.75	.430	.185	9.77**
	R	.430				

X_1 = Regional vs. Non-regional Schools
X_2 = Urban vs. Non-urban Schools
X_3 = Staff Size
X_4 = Student Enrollment
X_5 = Population Density of Community
X_6 = Teacher Turnover Rate
X_7 = Equalized Valuation per Student
X_8 = Percentage of Minority Teachers
X_9 = Percentage of Minority Pupils
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
s = variables in parenthsis are suppressor variables

is, meaninglessness was related negatively to percentage of minority pupils in the student body and was lower in urban schools (as compared to suburban and regional schools) with a multiple R of .684 ($p < .01$). Four variables entered the regression equation to predict student sense of normlessness. Staff size, equalized valuation per student, and population density of the community were all positively associated with normlessness with type of school (X_2) acting as a suppressor variable ($R = .559$, $p < .01$). Finally, four variables combined to provide the best set of demographic variables to predict total alienation. This composite measure of total alienation was positively associated with equalized valuation per student and staff size and was lower in urban schools, while population density of the community acted as a suppressor variable ($R = .576$, $p < .01$).

A regression analysis of demographic characteristics on school characteristics was also performed. Only population density of the community entered the regression equation predicting openness. Not surprisingly, the less the population density, the more open was the climate of the schools ($R = .326$, $p < .05$). None of the demographic variables was significantly related to production emphasis, thrust, or disengagement. However, urban schools (X_2) were generally associated with greater custodialism in pupil control orientation than other school types ($R = .430$, $p < .01$). Population density of the community in concert with teacher turnover rate produced a multiple R of .522 ($p < .01$) with esprit; the less the population density and the less the turnover rate, the greater the teacher esprit. Likewise, population density of the community and equalized valuation per student (with staff size acting as a suppressor variable) were negatively associated with intimacy and in concert yielded a multiple R of .590 ($p < .01$). Aloofness was best predicted by the single variable, type of school; urban schools provided a greater degree of aloofness than other types of schools ($R = .585$, $p < .01$). Type of school (X_1) with population density acting as a suppressor variable entered the regression equation to predict hindrance ($R = .369$, $p < .05$). Finally, teacher turnover rate and staff size combined to provide the most efficient predictors of consideration; the greater the rate of teacher turnover and the smaller the staff size, the greater the degree of consideration ($R = .427$, $p < .01$).

Two additional regression analyses were performed to explore the set of OCDQ variables and demographic variables which together predicted custodialism in the pupil control orientation of schools and openness of the climate of schools.[13] A significant R of .551

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[13] In the regression equation predicting openness, the variables thrust, disengagement, and esprit were not entered into the equation since these are the three OCDQ subtests which comprise the openness measure.

($p < .01$) was obtained as type of school (X_2), thrust, and rate of teacher turnover were entered into the regression equation predicting custodial pupil control orientation. Thrust was negatively related to custodialism, and urban schools rather than non-urban schools were associated with custodialism while the rate of teacher turnover acted as a suppressor variable. Four variables entered the regression equation predicting openness of school climate. Hindrance, intimacy, aloofness, and production emphasis were all negatively related to openness and, in concert, produced a strong multiple correlation coefficient of .808 ($p < .01$). These data are summarized in Tables 17 and 18.

In the final step-wise multiple regression performed, we sought to combine all the school and demographic characteristics of the study in order to develop regression equations to predict each variant of alienation. None of the predictor variables was forced into the equation, and, in this analysis as with the previous ones, the cut-off level of the partial F for inclusion in the equation was $F(3, 41, .05) = 2.83$. The data are summarized in Table 19.

The regression equation to predict student sense of normlessness contained three variables. Disengagement, custodialism, and equalized valuation per student were all positively related to normlessness and yielded a multiple coefficient of correlation with normlessness of .625 ($p < .01$).

Likewise, three variables were entered in the equation to predict student sense of isolation. Student enrollment was positively related and intimacy was negatively related to isolation while teacher turnover rate acted as a suppressor variable. A multiple R of .551 was significant beyond the .01 level of significance.

Four predictor variables were entered in the regression equation for student sense of powerlessness. Custodialism and equalized valuation per student were positively related to powerlessness while the type of school (urban or non-urban, X_2) and thrust were negatively associated with powerlessness. Computation of a multiple coefficient of correlation yielded an $R = .631$ ($p < .01$).

Only two variables entered the prediction equation for student sense of meaninglessness. The smaller the percentage of minority pupils in a school and non-urban schools rather than urban schools combined to produce a greater degree of sense of meaninglessness among students ($R = .684$, $p < .01$).

The regression equation to predict student sense of self-estrangement contained five variables. Custodialism, hindrance and staff size were all positively associated with self-estrangement; percentage of minority pupils was negatively

TABLE 17

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS SHOWING THE RELATIONSHIP OF OCDQ AND DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS TO CUSTODIALISM

Criterion Variable		Predictor Variables			Constant	R	R^2	F
Custodialism		X_2	X_{16}	$(X_6)^s$				
	beta	2.77	-.195	.104	61.50	.551	.304	5.97**
	R	.430	.505	.551				

X_1 = Regional vs. Non-regional Schools
X_2 = Urban vs. Non-urban Schools
X_3 = Staff Size
X_4 = Student Enrollment
X_5 = Population Density of Community
X_6 = Teacher Turnover Rate
X_7 = Equalized Valuation per Student
X_8 = Percentage of Minority Teachers
X_9 = Percentage of Minority Pupils

X_{10} = Disengagement
X_{11} = Hindrance
X_{12} = Esprit
X_{13} = Intimacy
X_{14} = Aloofness
X_{15} = Production Emphasis
X_{16} = Thrust
X_{17} = Consideration
X_{18} = Custodialism
* $p < .05$
**$p < .01$
s = variables in parentheses are suppressor variables

TABLE 18

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS SHOWING THE RELATIONSHIP OF OCDQ AND DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS TO OPENNESS

Criterion Variable	Predictor Variables					Constant	R	R^2	F
Openness		X_{11}	X_{14}	X_{15}	X_{13}				
	beta	-1.549	-.850	-.750	-.690	230.08	.808	.652	18.74**
	R	.657	.762	.787	.808				

X_1 = Regional vs. Non-regional Schools
X_2 = Urban vs. Non-urban Schools
X_3 = Staff Size
X_4 = Student Enrollment
X_5 = Population Density of Community
X_6 = Teacher Turnover Rate
X_7 = Equalized Valuation per Student
X_8 = Percentage of Minority Teachers
X_9 = Percentage of Minority Pupils

X_{10} = Disengagement
X_{11} = Hindrance
X_{12} = Esprit
X_{13} = Intimacy
X_{14} = Aloofness
X_{15} = Production Emphasis
X_{16} = Thrust
X_{17} = Consideration
X_{18} = Custodialism
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
s = variables in parentheses are suppressor variables

TABLE 19

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS SHOWING THE RELATIONSHIP OF SCHOOL AND DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS TO STUDENT ALIENATION CRITERIA

Criterion Variable		Predictor Variables					Constant	R	R^2	F
Normlessness		X_{10}	X_{18}	X_7						
	beta	.205	.197	.004			10.16	.625	.390	8.74**
	R	.477	.565	.625						
Isolation		X_4	X_{13}	$(X_6)^s$						
	beta	.0007	-.060	.022			26.75	.551	.303	5.95**
	R	.402	.501	.551						
Powerlessness		X_{18}	X_2	X_{16}	X_7					
	beta	.494	-2.77	-.169	.006		13.21	.631	.398	6.61**
	R	.374	.535	.585	.631					
Meaninglessness		X_2	X_9							
	beta	-1.077	-2.526				35.95	.684	.468	18.46**
	R	.648	.684							
Self-		X_9	X_{18}	X_{11}	X_3	(X_{17})				
Estrangement	beta	-.007	.195	.126	.017	.127	11.73	.672	.451	6.42**
	R	.362	.506	.584	.639	.672				
Total		X_{10}	X_{18}	X_2	X_7	X_3				
Alienation	beta	.430	1.037	-7.342	.016	.053	74.52	.762	.581	10.81**
	R	.389	.630	.674	.716	.762				

X_1 = Regional vs. Non-regional Schools
X_2 = Urban vs. Non-urban Schools
X_3 = Staff Size
X_4 = Student Enrollment
X_5 = Population Density of Community
X_6 = Teacher Turnover Rate
X_7 = Equalized Valuation per Student
X_8 = Percentage of Minority Teachers
X_9 = Percentage of Minority Pupils
X_{10}= Disengagement

X_{11} = Hindrance
X_{12} = Esprit
X_{13} = Intimacy
X_{14} = Aloofness
X_{15} = Production Emphasis
X_{16} = Thrust
X_{17} = Consideration
X_{18} = Custodialism
* p .05
**p .01
s = variables in parenthesis are suppressor variables

associated with self-estrangement; and consideration served as a suppressor variable. A multiple R of .672 was significant beyond the .01 level.

The final regression equation developed focused upon the prediction of a composite measure of student alienation. Again custodialism, disengagement, equalized valuation per student, and staff size were all positively related to total student alienation and combined with non-urban rather than urban schools to provide the best predictors of total alienation. Computation of a multiple correlation coefficient yielded an $R = .762$ ($p < .01$).[14]

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[14] The school means, standard deviations, and a correlation matrix for the major variables of the study are found in Appendix H.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The present research was concerned with relationships among organizational climate, pupil control orientation, and the alienation of students. In earlier chapters of this report the major concepts of the study were introduced along with a review of the pertinent literature and with the theoretical framework and the hypotheses that guided the research. The procedures and methodology of data collection and analysis were also described, and the findings of the study were presented. The purposes of this chapter are to summarize the findings, discuss their implications, draw conclusions, and propose possible areas for further related research.

Summary of Findings

Three sets of hypotheses were developed and tested in this study; indeed, the hypotheses served to delineate the major foci of the research. The findings were as follows:

1. High schools with more open organizational climates tended to have a significantly less custodial pupil control orientation; that is, the more open the school climate, the less custodial (more humanistic) the pupil control orientation. Interestingly, however, when the pupil control ideologies of principals and teachers were analyzed separately, the relationship held for teachers but not for principals. More open schools had significantly more humanistic teachers, but openness of climate and humanism in pupil control orientation of principals were not significantly correlated, although the relationship was in the anticipated direction.

2. The pupil control orientation of high schools was also related to the alienation of students. In general, the more custodial the pupil control orientation of the school, the more alienated the students were found to be. In particular, custodialism in the pupil control orientation of schools was significantly associated with measures of total alienation, normlessness, powerlessness, and sense of isolation of high school students. However, there was no significant relationship between pupil control orientation of the school and either meaninglessness or self-estrangement.

3. The final set of hypotheses was concerned with the relationship between organizational climate and student alienation. Again some support was found for the hypothesized relationships. In general, the more open the climate of the high school, the less the total alienation found among high schools. However, of the five major variants of alienation, only student sense of normlessness and sense of powerlessness correlated significantly with the openness of the climate of the school; the more open the climate of the school, the less the average sense of alienation.

Although hypotheses were developed only with respect to the openness of school climate, relationships between other dimensions of school climate and student alienation were also examined. Disengagement, hindrance, aloofness, and thrust were significantly related to aspects of student alienation. However, esprit, intimacy, production emphasis, and consideration in and of themselves were not significantly related to any aspect of alienation.

The data also provided a basis for testing and exploring other interesting relationships. The following findings emerged:

1. The department heads' perception of school climate and the climate as described by the entire professional staff were similar. Only with respect to consideration was there a significant difference: department heads described principals as being more considerate than did the faculty in general.

2. Population density of the community was significantly related to the "closedness" of the climate: the more densely populated the community, the greater the tendency for the climate of schools to be closed.

3. School size was not significantly related to the openness of the school climate.

4. The secondary principals in this study were significantly more humanistic in their pupil control ideology than the teachers.

5. Only with respect to isolation was there a significant difference between grade level and average degree of alienation: seniors felt less a sense of isolation than other students.

In order to explore more fully the relationships among aspects of school climate, pupil control orientation, and dimensions of student alienation, a series of step-wise multiple regression analyses were also performed. In the regression analyses, all eight organizational climate subtests were used as predictor variables rather than the composite measure of "openness" used in the tests of the hypotheses.[1]

The first series of regression analyses performed focused on the investigation of the possible influence of interactive and curvilinear terms in the development of regression equations predicting aspects of alienation from the OCDQ and PCI measures. Due primarily to the lack of consistent significant relationships of interactive and non-linear terms of alienation, interactive and quadratic terms were excluded from subsequent analysis; that is, the linear additive regression model was assumed to be an adequate representation of the data.

Next, the eight OCDQ measures (disengagement, hindrance, esprit, intimacy, aloofness, production emphasis, thrust, and consideration) and the PCI measure (custodialism) were used to predict the variants of student alienation (normlessness, isolation, powerlessness, meaninglessness, self-estrangement, and total alienation). None of the predictor measures combined to produce a significant relationship with student sense of self-estrangement. On the other hand, fairly substantial and significant relationships were established between the predictor variables and other aspects of student alienation. Custodialism in the pupil control orientation of the school entered all of the remaining regression equations, and custodialism in concert with disengagement was more often than not a significant predictor of variants of student alienation.

In addition to the major conceptual variables in the study, data were also collected on selected demographic variables of the schools and the communities in which they were located. A series of standard step-wise regression analyses were performed using the demographic variables as predictors and using the OCDQ dimensions, custodialism, and alienation dimensions as criterion variables. School size, type of school (urban, suburban, or regional), percentage of minority students, and equalized valuation per student provided to be the demographic characteristics most significantly associated with variants of student alienation.

With respect to the prediction of school characteristics from the demographic variables, the type of school, population density of the community, staff size, and equalized valuation per student were most often related to climate characteristics and to the pupil control orientation of schools. However, disengagement, production emphasis, and thrust were not significantly related to any of the demographic characteristics, and only population density was significantly related to the degree of climate openness.

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[1] Recall that the measure of openness of the school climate is computed by adding the Thrust and Esprit subtests and then subtracting the Disengagement subtest.

The final set of regression analyses focused upon the prediction of variants of student alienation from a pool of all the school and demographic characteristics of the study. Custodialism in pupil control orientation entered four of the six equations and equalized valuation per student entered three of the six equations predicting aspects of alienation. The multiple R's for the regression equations were all significant and greater than .55; in fact, five of the six R's were .6 or greater. The specific relationships which emerged will be discussed in some detail later in this chapter.

Hypotheses

The rationale for the openness-custodial hypotheses stressed the authenticity of interactions among professional personnel in high schools with more open climates and the inauthenticity of interactions of professional staff in high schools with more closed climates. It was assumed that if interactions among teachers and between teachers and principals were authentic, then authenticity would also tend to develop in teacher-pupil interactions. We theorized that a humanistic pupil control orientation would facilitate and be facilitated by authentic interactions between teachers and pupils.

The findings of this study of high schools paralleled those of an earlier study of elementary schools and again provided support for the theoretical rationale.[2] Openness of the climate of schools was significantly related to humanism in pupil control orientation of schools and to humanism of the pupil control ideology of the teachers. However, openness of the climate was not significantly associated with the pupil control orientation of principals. The results in both studies were consistent with each other. Again, as in the earlier study, role factors, as they are related to pupil control ideology, seem important in explaining the lack of relationship between school openness and the pupil control ideology of principals.

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[2] James B. Appleberry and Wayne K. Hoy, "The Pupil Control Ideology of Professional Personnel in 'Open' and 'Closed' Elementary Schools," Educational Administration Quarterly, V (Autumn, 1969), pp. 74-85.

The school is a service organization in which client participation is mandatory and clients are unselected. In this respect, Willower, Eidell, and Hoy[3] have indicated:

> The status problems of teachers are grounded in the nature of the school as an organization and in the requirement for the teacher role. They arise, in part at least, because the public school is an organization with unselected clients and because teachers are directly responsible for the control of these unselected clients.

They further theorized that those directly responsible for the control of unselected clients would be less humanistic (more custodial) than those less directly responsible for client control; hence, principals were expected to be more humanistic in their pupil control ideology than teachers. Indeed, in this study as in earlier ones, principals were found to be significantly more humanistic than teachers. The role of the teacher seems more vulnerable to threat from unselected clients than does the role of principal. In brief, principals tend to be relatively humanistic in pupil control ideology regardless of climate; therefore, it is not really surprising that the "openness-humanistic" relationship is not as strong for principals as for teachers. The relationship was, however, in the predicted direction.

The strength of the correlation found to exist between openness of the school and the pupil control orientation of the school ($r = -.33$) for secondary schools in the present study was substantially lower, however, than the correlation in the elementary school sample ($r = -.61$).[4] Other factors may be moderating the relationship in secondary schools. In addition, it should be noted that the secondary schools in this sample were considerably less open in organizational climate than the elementary schools in the Appleberry and Hoy study.[5]

The other hypotheses of the study were concerned with the concept of student alienation. A large number of studies of alienation have considered the concept to be multidimensional. The findings of the present research add support to that position. Both the pupil control orientation and the organizational climate of schools were, in general, related to student alienation as predicted; that is, the more open the climate, the less alienated the students; and the more "custodial" the school, the more alienated the students. However, the conceptualization and measurement of variants of alienation helped to produce a more refined picture of student alienation. Indeed, some aspects of alienation were not related to climate and pupil control ideology as predicted.

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[3] Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology (University Park, Pa.: Penn State Studies Monograph No. 24, 1967).

[4] James B. Appleberry and Wayne K. Hoy, "The Pupil Control Ideology of Professional Personnel in 'Open' and 'Closed' Elementary Schools," Educational Administration Quarterly, V (Autumn, 1969), pp. 74-85.

[5] Ibid.

Custodialism in school pupil control orientation turned out to be a somewhat better predictor of student alienation than the openness of climate. Total alienation, normlessness, isolation, and powerlessness of students were, as predicted, all significantly related to custodialism in the pupil control orientation of the school. On the other hand, only normlessness, powerlessness, and total alienation were significantly related to openness of the climate. All of the significant correlations were moderate in strength, ranging from .28 to .44.

Of all the variants of alienation, student normlessness is clearly the one that relates more strongly to "openness" and "custodialism" of schools. Where schools tend to be closed or custodial in their orientation, students tend to suffer from a greater sense of "anomie"; that is, they expect that socially unapproved behaviors are required to achieve given goals. They are more prone to tell teachers what they think teachers want to hear, and they feel that wrong has been done only if they get caught. To these alienated students, the means tend to be justified if the ends are accomplished.

Interestingly, meaninglessness and self-estrangement of students did not correlate significantly with either openness of the climate or custodialism of the pupil control orientation of the school. Meaninglessness refers to a sensed inability to predict outcomes. Predictability of outcomes by students was not related to openness of the climate, but there was a tendency for custodialism and meaninglessness of students to be inversely related; that is, the more custodial the orientation of the school, the less the felt inability to predict outcomes.

Of all the dimensions of alienation, self-estrangement seems to be least well related to custodialism in pupil control orientation of the school, openness of the climate of the school, or other climate characteristics of schools.

The Climate of Secondary Schools

One of the significant developments in the study of the organization and administration of public schools has been the identification and construction of a measure of the concept of organizational climate of schools, the OCDQ. The OCDQ was initially developed by Halpin and Croft to "map the domain" of the organizational climate of elementary schools.[6] Subsequently, the instrument was subjected to a comprehensive validity study conducted by Andrews involving 165 Alberta schools, including both secondary and elementary schools.[7] He concluded that the instrument had construct validity for both elementary and secondary schools, but that vagueness of the six climate types was a detraction from the validity of the OCDQ.[8]

More recent study of the organizational climate of schools has also directed attention to the fact that "larger" secondary schools appear to have closed climates to a considerably greater extent than elementary schools.[9] Indeed, Carver and Sergiovanni have questioned the appropriateness of the OCDQ as a measure of the climate of "large" secondary schools.[10] They speculate that the complex nature of secondary schools may mitigate against valid perceptions of climate where the school size is greater than twenty-five to thirty teachers. In fact, they imply that the OCDQ measure might more satisfactorily and accurately reflect the climate of large secondary schools if the respondents were limited to "key communicators" such as department chairmen. Furthermore, they rather arbitrarily dismiss the possibility that "large" secondary schools may generally tend to have more closed climates than the elementary schools studied by Halpin and Croft.

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[6] Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1963).

[7] John H. M. Andrews, "School Organizational Climate: Some Validity Studies," Canadian Education and Research Digest, V (December, 1965), pp. 317-34.

[8] Ibid.

[9] For example, Fred D. Carver and Thomas J. Sergiovanni, "Some Notes on the OCDQ," The Journal of Educational Administration, VII (May, 1969), pp. 78-81, and Foster J. Watkins, "The OCDQ--An Application and Some Implications," Educational Administration Quarterly, IV (Spring, 1968), pp. 46-60.

[10] Carver and Sergiovanni, op. cit.

The data of the present study permit a further analysis of the measurement of organizational climate of relatively "large" secondary schools. First, it seems important to note that classification of the climate of a school into one of six discrete categories from open to closed makes use of the prototypic profile method of classification developed by Halpin and Croft in the original OCDQ study. Hence, the norms for the climate types were based upon a sample of only 71 schools, all of which were elementary. A secondary analysis of the data for schools in the present sample using the prototypic profiles established in the Halpin and Croft study as a basis to determining climate revealed that an overwhelming number of schools fell on the closed side of the continuum; in fact, like the Carver and Sergiovanni sample, none of our schools could be classified as open, given the openness criteria of the original sample of elementary schools. As the data were collected, however, the researchers observed and "felt" distinct differences among the schools, differences not unlike those reflected in description of the open and closed climates.[11] Furthermore, the results of the multiple regression analysis to predict openness of the climate tend to support this observation. Schools with lower hindrance, lower aloofness, lower intimacy and lower production emphasis in concert provided the set of variables which best predicted the openness of the school climate. Rather than conclude that the OCDQ does not reasonably measure climate in "large" secondary schools, we are more inclined to the view that "large" secondary schools may be generally more closed in climate than the elementary schools in the original Halpin and Croft study. Therefore, any classification of large secondary schools into climate types based upon the original prototypic profiles would almost guarantee a preponderance of "closed" climates.

Several findings in the present research tend to support this view. Because of the difficulties and problems of classification of schools into discrete climate types using the prototypic profile method, it was decided at the outset to use the alternative method of determining the relative "openness" of the school climate based upon the "openness" score of the school.[12] The subsequent distribution of openness scores did provide an adequate range for data analysis. Empirically predictable differences between more open and more closed schools were supported; e.g., more open schools tended to be significantly more humanistic in their pupil control orientation. In addition, we tested the hypothesis that "key communicators" such as department heads might have a different (perhaps more valid) perception of the climate of the large secondary schools in our sample. Total faculty scores and department chairmen scores for each of the eight OCDQ subtests and for the school openness score were remarkably similar. In fact, only one significant difference emerged: the scores of the department chairmen were significantly higher in describing the consideration of the principal than were those of the total faculty. In a word, there was little difference between the way department heads described the climate and the way the entire faculty described it.

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[11] Carver and Sergiovanni describe the same feeling with respect to the schools in their sample, "Some Notes on the OCDQ," The Journal of Educational Administration, VII (May, 1969), pp. 79-80.

[12] See Chapter III for a more detailed discussion of the merits of using an "openness" score rather than the prototypic profile method to characterize the climate of secondary schools.

On the other hand, the results of the study with respect to the Esprit subtest were somewhat puzzling. Esprit in and of itself did not correlate with any of the alienation dimensions or with pupil control ideology. This was especially surprising because Halpin has indicated that esprit provided the best index of the authenticity of the group's behavior in the same way in which thrust measured the principal's authenticity.

In summary, the relatively "large" secondary schools in the present study were significantly more closed than the elementary schools in the original study, a finding replicated in many other studies of the climate of the secondary schools. Nonetheless, the relative "openness" of the climate of the secondary schools was associated with important differences among the schools. The fact that relatively large secondary schools turn out to be predominantly "closed" may simply mean, that compared to the original sample of elementary schools, they are more closed. It does not seem to follow that there are not important differences among the open-closed continuum for these "large" secondary schools or that the instrument (OCDQ) "lacks sufficient potency to adequately map organizational climates of large high schools."[13] It does seem, however, that if the prototypic profile method is going to be used to determine the climate of secondary schools, then, at the very best, a large sample of secondary schools should be used to establish norms for secondary schools. Further, simply using department chairmen as key communicators to describe the climate of a school alters the mapping of the climate very little.

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[13] Fred D. Carver and Thomas J. Sergiovanni, "Some Notes on the OCDQ," The Journal of Educational Administration, VII (May, 1969), p. 81.

Our findings led us to the following conclusions: (1) given the present norms on climate, the prototypic profile method of designating discrete climates for secondary schools is neither justified nor useful; (2) the "openness" score provides a rough index for the relative degree of openness of climate among secondary schools; (3) the subtests of the OCDQ tap and measure important aspects of the organizational climate of secondary schools; and (4) in agreement with Andrews, "the overall climate does not predict anything that is not better predicted by the subtests."[14] These last two conclusions are more fully underscored by the findings of the regression analyses in the present research.

Pupil Control Orientation

Pupil control orientation has been conceptualized along a continuum with "humanism" at one extreme and "custodialism" at the other. Following the lead of earlier research on pupil control, the concepts were adopted to refer to contrasting types of individual ideologies and the types of school organization that they seek to rationalize and legitimize.[15] The earlier research pointed to the centrality and saliency of pupil control in the organizational life of schools. In the present study the significance of pupil control orientation as an important characteristic of high schools was again confirmed. Pupil control orientation was related to both the openness of the school climate and the alienation of high school students. Indeed, it was one of the few school characteristics which was consistently related to various aspects of student alienation.

To the extent that a high school attempts to communicate values as well as to communicate knowledge and develop skills, a humanistic pupil control ideology seems highly functional. A positive and strong commitment of students to school seems required to effectively communicate values.[16] It also appears unlikely that such commitment can be effectively attained in the "custodial" high school; in fact, as the results of this research suggest, a custodial atmosphere in the high school is likely to foster alienation of students rather than commitment.

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[14] Andrews, op. cit., p. 333.

[15] For example, see Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology (University Park, Pa.: Penn State Studies Monograph No. 24, 1967); and Wayne K. Hoy, "The Influence of Experience on the Beginning Teacher," The School Review, LXXVI (September, 1968), pp. 312-23.

[16] Amitai Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations (New York: The Free Press, 1961).

The results of the multiple step-wise regression analysis to predict custodialism in the pupil control orientation of schools were also somewhat enlightening. Custodialism was substantially associated with both the type of school and the thrust of the principal. Urban schools and schools with principals with low thrust tend to be custodial in their pupil control orientation. Recall that thrust refers not to close supervision of the staff, but to the principal's attempt to motivate teachers by his personal example. Perhaps the principal with high thrust provides an example of "reality-centered leadership" which sets the tone of the school for more "humanistic" interpersonal relations, while the principal with low thrust provides a model of leadership behavior consistent with a "custodial" school with respect both to administrator-teacher and to teacher-student relations. In addition, urban schools in and of themselves apparently may provide a set of conditions which are strongly conducive to a custodial pupil control orientation.

In brief, the significance of pupil control orientation as an important aspect of the organizational life was underscored by the findings of this study. The concepts of "custodialism" and "humanism" provided useful means for identifying schools with important differences in patterns of social interaction.[17] If statements concerning orientation correspond relatively well with actual behavior, then pupil control orientation of a school may provide another important component in the identification of the "social climate" of the high school.

Alienation of Students

The dimensions of alienation explicated by Seeman[18] and operationalized by Kolesar[19] provided a useful conceptual and operational basis for the study of alienation of students in the school. All of the variants of alienation were found to be related to one or more characteristics of schools. This is in some contrast to Kolesar's study in which he found that only powerlessness and total alienation were consistently related to the bureaucratic structure of schools. On the other hand, the mean scores for Canadian high school students on each dimension of alienation were remarkably similar to the mean scores of the high school students in the present study. Likewise, the intercorrelations among the alienation subtests were similar for both samples of students. In brief, the American secondary school students of the present sample were really neither no more nor no less alienated than their Canadian counterparts.

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[17] Similarly, the concepts have been useful for differentiating contrasting types of elementary schools. See Wayne K. Hoy and James Appleberry, "Teacher-Principal Relationships in 'Humanistic' and 'Custodial' Elementary Schools," Journal of Experimental Education (in press).

[18] Melvin Seeman, "On the Meaning of Alienation," American Sociological Review, XXXIV (December, 1959), pp. 783-91.

[19] Henry Kolesar, "An Empirical Study of Client Alienation in the Bureaucratic Organization" (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada, 1967).

However, it should be noted again that the unit of analysis for exploring and testing relationships between school characteristics and aspects of student alienation was the school, not individual students per se; that is, mean alienation scores of the students for each school were compared with mean scores for other schools. The thrust of the present study was an attempt to explain differences among schools with respect to the relative degree of student alienation. Undoubtedly, there were some differences in the range of alienation scores for students within each school, and an examination of such differences would provide the basis for another study of student alienation.

The multi-dimensional character of alienation was underscored by the present findings. Organizational characteristics which were related to one type of student alienation were not necessarily related to another type. The results of the final set of step-wise regression analyses, where aspects of alienation were predicted from all of the conceptual and demographic variables, seem relevant in this regard.

Of the eighteen possible variables which could have entered the regression equation to predict student sense of meaninglessness, only type of school and the percentage of minority students in a school entered the regression to predict student sense of meaninglessness. The average sense of student meaninglessness was inversely related to percentage of minority students and type of school; that is, schools with larger percentages of minority students and urban schools tended to have a less alienated student body with respect to meaninglessness. This finding was somewhat surprising, but recall that an earlier regression analysis indicated that custodialism and aloofness were also significantly and inversely related to meaninglessness. The more aloof the staff and the more custodial the pupil control orientation of the school, the less the student sense of meaninglessness. Aloofness refers to a principal whose behavior is characterized as formal and impersonal and one who prefers to be guided by rules. Custodialism in pupil control ideology also depicts a rigid traditional school. Apparently these characteristics, while they are directly related to other aspects of student alienation, do not produce in students a sense of meaninglessness. On the contrary, they may, by clearly mapping the consequences of student action with a multitude of rules and regulations, increase the students' ability to predict outcomes and hence serve to reduce student meaninglessness. In short, predictability of outcomes, regardless of the specifics of the outcomes, appears to be central in the conceptualization of student sense of meaninglessness. The fact that events are predictable, even if they are alienative in other terms, may mitigate against sense of meaninglessness as defined by Seeman and operationalized by Kolesar.

In contrast, powerlessness referring to a sensed inability to control outcomes, was positively associated with two factors: custodialism in pupil control orientation and equalized valuation per student. In fact, these two factors combined with type of school and thrust (non-urban schools with a low degree of thrust had greater powerlessness) provided the best set of predictors of the degree of powerlessness among students.

Normlessness is a version of alienation derived from Durkheim's description of "anomie." The student who is alienated in the normlessness sense will be prone to make his decisions on the basis of potential effectiveness in spite of rules, regulations, and social norms to the contrary; the successful accomplishment of ends seems to justify the means. The best single predictor of student normlessness was the disengagement of the school. Disengagement refers to tendency of teachers not to be "with it," i.e., a group which is merely "going through the motions." Interestingly, Halpin observed that disengagement corresponded to the more general concept of Durkheim's "anomie."[20] It seems plausible to suggest that perhaps a school imbued with normlessness on the part of the faculty facilitates normlessness among the student body. In addition to disengagement, custodialism in pupil control orientation and equalized valuation per student of the school district provided the set of "best" predictors of student normlessness. The rigid and highly controlled setting of the "custodial" school also seems compatible with and may even tend to produce student normlessness, especially in schools drawing their student bodies from wealthy districts where the student body is primarily upper-middle class.

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[20] Halpin, op. cit.

Size of the student enrollment in concert with the degree of intimacy in teacher-teacher relations are school characteristics which predicted a student sense of isolation. Perhaps the impersonality of large schools and the lack of intimacy among teachers contribute to a general impersonal school atmosphere in which students become detached from the school and its goals. Although the term isolation as developed and used in this study does not itself denote a lack of warmth or intensity in social contacts but rather refers to situations in which one has become detached from a given social organization, it may be that impersonality in social contacts is closely related to the tendency for an individual to become alienated from reigning goals and standards and opt for a new social structure with a new and different set of priorities.

The final regression equation which predicted student sense of self-estrangement had the greatest number of predictor variables enter the equation. It was not really surprising to find that students tend to have a more difficult time finding self-rewarding activities in schools imbued with a custodial pupil orientation or in schools where a high degree of hindrance prevailed. Indeed, when teachers perceive that the school administration burdens them with "busy work," there may also be a tendency for students to have similar feelings toward the school in general and toward teachers in particular. Likewise, the larger the school, the greater the tendency for the student body to feel a sense of self-estrangement; the greater the proportion of minority students, the less the degree of self-estrangement of the student body. There may be a greater commitment to school and education for its own sake on the part of minority students than is often assumed.

Custodialism, disengagement, equalized valuation per student, and staff size were all positively related to total student alienation, and they combined with non-urban rather than urban schools to provide the best predictor of the composite measure of student alienation.

Although somewhat oversimplified, a picture of the prototypic high school with a high degree of alienation might be tentatively sketched from the present findings as follows: a more custodial pupil control orientation, a more "closed" organizational climate (higher disengagement, higher hindrance, lower intimacy, and lower thrust), a lower percentage of minority students, higher equalized valuation per student, larger in size, and non-urban in character.

The findings that some variants of student alienation, especially meaninglessness, are often greater in non-urban rather than urban schools, in schools with a smaller percentage of minority students, and in schools located in wealthier districts, at first glance, may seem a little confusing. However, the findings appear consistent with Winslow's study of delinquency and alienation.[21] He found that rebellion was higher within a socio-economically differentiated middle class than within a low differentiated "poverty pocket" area.

Furthermore, Whyte found that urban middle class students appeared to be more highly alienated than small town and lower class students.[22] Whyte's urban middle class students closely correspond to the kind of students predominately found in the "non-urban" and wealthier school districts in the present study. He explained his finding in terms of middle class students' subscription to an intellectual "ideology of alienation" of the times. Since his argument seems relevant to an interpretation of the present set of data, it will be reviewed.

Hofstadter identifies and then traces the emergence of an "ideology of alienation," a general alienation from the patterns of American society and its culture.[23] The depression of the 1930's served to accentuate this ideology; in fact, it became a rallying point for a new breed of intellectual dedicated to the amelioration of present social problems. After the war, the widespread, anti-intellectualism of McCarthyism served to unite American intellectuals and helped them recognize more clearly their common alienation from the prevailing political regime. However, since the decline of McCarthyism, the alienation of intellectuals has become increasingly emulated by larger numbers of educated Americans; that is, the "ideology of alienation" has tended to become a general characteristic of more educated persons, a trend supported by the liberal government during the sixties. Indeed, Hofstadter sees the identity of American intellectuals endangered by the pervasive acceptance of intellectual values and by a general identification with the "ideology of alienation."

High school students in wealthier, non-urban schools with few minority students seem not only more likely to have been exposed to this ideology, but also seem more likely to identify with it than high school students in urban schools comprised of large numbers of minority students. Hence, the findings that non-urban schools,

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[21] Robert W. Winslow, "An Organizational Theory of Delinquency and Alienation" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of California at Los Angeles, 1966).

[22] Donald R. Whyte, "Social Alienation Among College Students" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Cornell University, 1963).

[23] Richard Hofstadter, Anti-Intellectualism in American Life (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1963).

schools with a lower percentage of minority students, and schools in wealthier districts tend to have a higher degree of student alienation should not be overly surprising. Identification with intellectual values, a general disenchantment with society, and the concomitant disillusionment may produce in white middle class students a general alienative predisposition toward the school. Furthermore, Stinchcombe has noted a "doctrine of adolescent inferiority" which is operative in many high schools, primarily as a means of maintaining order and conformity among students.[24] It seems reasonable to suspect that this doctrine may be especially widespread in more custodial schools and in schools with closed climates, and, together, these characteristics serve to aggravate any general alienative predisposition of middle class students to the school. At any rate, the data of this study indicate that larger, non-urban high schools in relatively wealthy school districts apparently had more than their share of alienated students.

Concluding Statement

The primary purpose of this study was to explore the relationships between student alienation and characteristics of high schools. In this regard, the theoretical framework employed in this study proved to be a reasonably useful one, in that it produced a majority of hypotheses about pupil control orientation of schools, openness of school climate, and student alienation which were tested and supported empirically. The results suggest that there are organizational characteristics of high schools which are significantly associated with variants of student alienation. Furthermore, the inadequacy of a unidimensional conceptualization of alienation was supported. Social structures may be alienative in one sense, but not in others. For example, custodialism in the pupil control orientation of school was significantly and positively related to normlessness, isolation, powerlessness, but inversely related to meaninglessness.

Although in most of the analyses, variants of alienation were predicted from characteristics of schools and in some instances specific hypotheses were tested, causality has not been established. Though it is plausible that certain kinds of high schools may produce alienated students, it seems just as logical that schools with a large segment of alienated students may develop specific characteristics in order to adapt to student alienation.

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[24] Arthur L. Stinchcombe, Rebellion in a High School (Chicago: Quadrangle Books, 1964).

The specific characteristics of schools which were examined in this study are only some of the organizational variables which might have been studied. Other important organizational properties need to be investigated with respect to student alienation. For example, communication structure, centralization, specialization, standardization, complexity, and heterogeneity are structural characteristics of schools which may also be related to student alienation. Similarly, the intellectual stress and intellectual climate of the school may have important consequences for the orientation of students toward the school.

On the other hand, even though there were systematic differences among various types of schools with respect to variants of alienation, there were also differences within schools with respect to student alienation. Indeed, differences in individual alienation of students within various school settings appear to be a potentially fruitful area for further research. For example, the PAQ might be utilized to identify high school students who are extremely alienated and those who are highly committed with respect to various dimensions of alienation and then, through comparative analysis, to explore the social and psychological conditions which seem related to student alienation.

The results of the study suggest numerous other questions which are in need of answer. For example, the findings that some aspects of student alienation were often greater in non-urban rather than urban schools, in schools with a smaller percentage of minority students, and in schools located in wealthier districts raise other important questions. Are these findings a function of the present sample? To what extent is there an intellectual "ideology of alienation" among students in different types of schools? And to what extent does such an ideology explain the present findings? The present study focused on students' sense of alienation from school, their attitudes toward the school, not their behavior in school. Under what conditions does a sense of alienation become expressed in overt behavior? What are the relationships between various aspects of student alienation and modes of student behavior? To what extent does authentic student participation in the decision-making processes of the school improve student identification with the school?

It seems apparent that the present study has been only a beginning. Several other recent studies,[25] however, have also underscored both the atmosphere of the school and the student's sense of involvement and identification with the school as salient factors in the student's educational growth and development. That evidence together with the results of the present study suggests that one possible way to begin to increase the attractiveness of secondary schools is to "open" and "humanize" the climate. However, there are no simple approaches for changing the atmosphere or climate of schools. Similarly, there are no quick methods to build a positive and strong commitment of students toward schools, but the two problems do seem interrelated. More research is necessary not only to explore strategies for changing the school climate, but also to explore the relationship between student alienation and other organizational variables.

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[25] James S. Coleman, Equality of Educational Opportunity (Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, 1966); A. W. Tamminen and G. D. Miller, Guidance Programs and Their Impact on Students (St. Paul: Office of Education, 1968); and Douglas H. Heath, "Student Alienation and the School," The School Review, IV (August, 1970), pp. 515-28.

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APPENDIX A

CHARACTERISTICS OF SCHOOLS AND COMMUNITIES

School Number	Student Population	Minority Students	School Type	Population* Density	Equalized Valuation Per Pupil	Staff Size	Minority Teachers
1	1,159	3	Sub.	3,797	$34,516	75	1
2	1,765	1	Sub.	2,721	50,991	124	0
3	1,333	3	Sub.	11,539	32,110	89	2
4	1,116	110	Urb.	7,052	31,051	72	0
5	1,648	4	Reg.	473	39,097	101	9
6	912	20	Sub.	557	28,628	72	0
7	1,294	6	Sub.	689	25,700	90	0
8	1,320	9	Reg.	667	30,158	76	1
9	647	4	Sub.	4,543	42,781	45	0
10	1,402	341	Urb.	35,508	17,377	92	0
11	1,602	12	Reg.	667	30,158	158	1
12	1,599	804	Urb.	42,633	26,360	91	2
13	404	12	Sub.	181	51,077	46	1
14	1,635	0	Reg.	3,037	34,442	103	1
15	1,716	104	Reg.	3,148	31,071	103	2
16	2,047	270	Urb.	10,705	44,438	134	10
17	2,204	176	Urb.	6,367	61,855	139	5
18	1,004	35	Reg.	3,037	47,804	55	3
19	1,061	4	Sub.	6,207	37,130	76	2
20	1,035	-	Reg.	250	32,885	69	0
21	1,106	553	Urb.	37,628	20,301	64	2
22	685	4	Sub.	6,777	30,836	46	0
23	1,149	52	Sub.	1,122	38,882	68	1
24	1,391	623	Urb.	13,520	32,108	93	7
25	604	0	Sub.	878	43,714	40	0
26	884	6	Sub.	3,989	36,171	63	0

APPENDIX A (Continued)

School Number	Student Population	Minority Students	School Type	Population* Density	Equalized Valuation Per Pupil	Staff Size	Minority Teachers
27	1,888	16	Sub.	10,113	34,254	124	1
28	1,556	2	Reg.	3,037	47,804	98	1
29	1,291	100	Urb.	8,607	44,712	75	3
30	1,642	-	Sub.	2,678	26,344	119	2
31	1,416	354	Reg.	1,468	25,557	101	6
32	1,188	1	Reg.	1,644	33,064	73	0
33	588	-	Sub.	1,506	26,792	37	1
34	2,115	212	Urb.	9,588	40,434	111	4
35	1,251	0	Reg.	950	29,155	90	0
36	1,671	35	Reg.	950	29,155	127	0
37	758	1	Sub.	272	31,091	59	0
38	956	16	Sub.	5,614	41,758	63	2
39	491	10	Sub.	13,314	39,759	44	1
40	1,064	12	Sub.	2,737	26,105	74	1
41	723	2	Reg.	207	38,313	59	0
42	1,023	135	Urb.	37,628	33,068	67	1
43	629	0	Sub.	4,727	68,223	51	0
44	1,163	10	Sub.	18,950	54,598	75	0
45	1,660	19	Sub.	5,189	20,269	85	0

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*Number of people per square mile

APPENDIX B

PCI FORM

INFORMATION

On the following pages a number of statements about the school setting are presented. Our purpose is to gether information regarding the actual attitudes of educators concerning these statements.

You will recognize that the statements are of such a nature that there are no correct or incorrect answers. We are interested only in your frank opinion of them.

Your responses will remain confidential, and no individual or school will be named in the report of this study. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Instructions:

Following are some statements about schools, teachers, and pupils. Please indicate your personal opinion about each statement by circling the appropriate response at the right of each statement.

SA--Strongly Agree, A--Agree, U--Undecided, D--Disagree,
SD--Strongly Disagree

1. It is desirable to require pupils to sit in assigned seats during assemblies . . .	SA	A	U	D	SD
2. Pupils are usually not capable of solving their problems through logical reasoning	SA	A	U	D	SD
3. Directing sarcastic remarks toward a defiant pupil is a good disciplinary technique	SA	A	U	D	SD
4. Beginning teachers are not likely to maintain strict enough control over their pupils	SA	A	U	D	SD
5. Teachers should consider revision of their teaching methods if these are criticized by their pupils	SA	A	U	D	SD
6. The best principals give unquestioning support to teachers in disciplining pupils	SA	A	U	D	SD
7. Pupils should not be permitted to contradict the statements of a teacher in class	SA	A	U	D	SD

SA--Strongly Agree, A--Agree, U--Undecided, D--Disagree,
SD--Strongly Disagree

8. It is justifiable to have pupils learn many facts about a subject even if they have no immediate application . . . . . . SA A U D SD
9. Too much pupil time is spent on guidance and activities and too little on academic preparation . . . . SA A U D SD
10. Being friendly with pupils often leads them to become too familiar . . . . SA A U D SD
11. It is more important for pupils to learn to obey rules than that they make their own decisions . . . . SA A U D SD
12. Student governments are a good "safety valve" but should not have much influence on school policy . . . . SA A U D SD
13. Pupils can be trusted to work together without supervision . . . . SA A U D SD
14. If a pupil uses obscene or profane language in school, it must be considered a moral offense . . . . SA A U D SD
15. If pupils are allowed to use the lavatory without getting permission, this privilege will be abused . . . . SA A U D SD
16. A few pupils are just young hoodlums and should be treated accordingly . . . . . . SA A U D SD
17. It is often necessary to remind pupils that their status in school differs from that of teachers . . . . SA A U D SD
18. A pupil who destroys school material or property should be severely punished . . SA A U D SD
19. Pupils cannot perceive the difference between democracy and anarchy in the classroom . . . . SA A U D SD
20. Pupils often misbehave in order to make the teacher look bad . . . . SA A U D SD

APPENDIX C

FORM IV*

Instructions:

Following are some statements about the school setting. Please indicate the extent to which each statement characterizes your school by circling the appropriate response at the right of each statement.

RO--Rarely Occurs, SO--Sometimes Occurs, OO--Often Occurs, VFO--Very Frequently Occurs

1. Teachers' closest friends are other faculty members at this school . . . . RO SO OO VFO
2. The mannerisms of teachers at this school are annoying . . . . RO SO OO VFO
3. Teachers spend time after school with students who have individual problems . . . . . RO SO OO VFO
4. Instructions for the operation of teaching aids are available . . . . RO SO OO VFO
5. Teachers invite other faculty members to visit them at home . . . . RO SO OO VFO
6. There is a minority group of teachers who always oppose the majority . . . . RO SO OO VFO
7. Extra books are available for classroom use RO SO OO VFO
8. Sufficient time is given to prepare administrative reports . . . . RO SO OO VFO
9. Teachers know the family background of other faculty members . . . . RO SO OO VFO
10. Teachers exert group pressure on nonconforming faculty members . . . . RO SO OO VFO
11. In faculty meetings, there is the feeling of "let's get things done." . . . . RO SO OO VFO
12. Administrative paper work is burdensome at this school . . . . RO SO OO VFO
13. Teachers talk about their personal life to other faculty members . . . . RO SO OO VFO
14. Teachers seek special favors from the principal . . . . RO SO OO VFO

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*Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools, U.S.O.E. Research Project (Contract #SAE 543-8639), August, 1962.

RO--Rarely Occurs, SO--Sometimes Occurs, OO--Often Occurs, VFO--Very Frequently Occurs

15. School supplies are readily available for use in classwork . . . . RO SO OO VFO
16. Student progress reports require too much work . . . . RO SO OO VFO
17. Teachers have fun socializing together during school time . . . . RO SO OO VFO
18. Teachers interrupt other faculty members who are talking in staff meetings . . . . . . RO SO OO VFO
19. Most of the teachers here accept the faults of their colleagues . . . . RO SO OO VFO
20. Teachers have too many committee requirements . . . . RO SO OO VFO
21. There is considerable laughter when teachers gather informally . . . . RO SO OO VFO
22. Teachers ask nonsensical questions in faculty meetings . . . . RO SO OO VFO
23. Custodial service is available when needed . . . . RO SO OO VFO
24. Routine duties interfere with the job of teaching . . . . RO SO OO VFO
25. Teachers prepare administrative reports by themselves . . . . RO SO OO VFO
26. Teachers ramble when they talk in faculty meetings . . . . RO SO OO VFO
27. Teachers at this school show much school spirit . . . . RO SO OO VFO
28. The principal goes out of his way to help teachers . . . . RO SO OO VFO
29. The principal helps teachers solve personal problems . . . . RO SO OO VFO
30. Teachers at this school stay by themselves . RO SO OO VFO
31. The teachers accomplish their work with great vim, vigor, and pleasure . . . . RO SO OO VFO
32. The principal sets an example by working hard himself . . . . RO SO OO VFO
33. The principal does personal favors for teachers . . . . RO SO OO VFO
34. Teachers eat lunch by themselves in their own classrooms . . . . RO SO OO VFO
35. The morale of the teachers is high . . . . . RO SO OO VFO
36. The principal uses constructive criticism . RO SO OO VFO
37. The principal stays after school to help teachers finish their work . . . . RO SO OO VFO
38. Teachers socialize together in small select groups . . . . RO SO OO VFO

RO--Rarely Occurs, SO--Sometimes Occurs, OO--Often Occurs, VFO--Very Frequently Occurs

39. The principal makes all class-scheduling decisions . . . . RO SO OO VFO
40. Teachers are contacted by the principal each day . . . . RO SO OO VFO
41. The principal is well prepared when he speaks at school functions . . . . RO SO OO VFO
42. The principal helps staff members settle minor differences . . . . RO SO OO VFO
43. The principal schedules the work for the teachers . . . . RO SO OO VFO
44. Teachers leave the grounds during the school day . . . . RO SO OO VFO
45. Teachers help select which courses will be taught . . . . RO SO OO VFO
46. The principal corrects teachers' mistakes . RO SO OO VFO
47. The principal talks a great deal . . . . . . RO SO OO VFO
48. The principal explains his reasons for criticism to teachers . . . . RO SO OO VFO
49. The principal tries to get better salaries for teachers . . . . RO SO OO VFO
50. Extra duty for teachers is posted conspicuously . . . . RO SO OO VFO
51. The rules set by the principal are never questioned . . . . RO SO OO VFO
52. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of teachers . . . . RO SO OO VFO
53. School secretarial service is available for teachers' use . . . . RO SO OO VFO
54. The principal runs the faculty meeting like a business conference . . . . RO SO OO VFO
55. The principal is in the building before teachers arrive . . . . RO SO OO VFO
56. Teachers work together preparing administrative reports . . . . RO SO OO VFO
57. Faculty meetings are organized according to a tight agenda . . . . RO SO OO VFO
58. Faculty meetings are mainly principal-report meetings . . . . RO SO OO VFO
59. The principal tells teachers of new ideas he has run across . . . . RO SO OO VFO
60. Teachers talk about leaving the school system . . . . RO SO OO VFO
61. The principal checks the subject-matter ability of teachers . . . . RO SO OO VFO
62. The principal is easy to understand . . . . RO SO OO VFO
63. Teachers are informed of the results of a supervisor's visit . . . . RO SO OO VFO
64. The principal insures that teachers work to their full capacity . . . . RO SO OO VFO

INFORMATION SHEET

Instructions:

Please complete this form by checking the appropriate boxes and filling in blanks where indicated. Do not write your name anywhere on this form.

1. Sex: ( ) Male ( ) Female

2. Marital status: ( ) Single ( ) Married ( ) Widowed
( ) Divorced

3. Education:
( ) Less than Baccalaureate
( ) Baccalaureate degree
( ) Graduate work (no advanced degree)
( ) Master's degree (or equivalent)
( ) Graduate work beyond Master's (no advanced degree)
( ) Sixth-year degree
( ) Graduate work beyond Sixth-year degree (no advanced degree)
( ) Doctorate

4. What is your average class size? ( ) Less than 15 ( ) 16-20
( ) 21-25 ( ) 26-30 ( ) More than 30

5. Age (nearest birthday): _____

6. Number of years teaching experience in this building
(including this year) ______________

7. Number of years teaching experience in this district
(including this year) ______________

8. Total number of years teaching experience
(including this year) ______________

9. Have you ever been employed as a school administrator?
( ) Yes ( ) No

10. What is your present teaching or other assignment?
____
____
____

11. Number of children (your own): _____

12. How many years have you taught under the present principal
(including this year) ______________

APPENDIX D

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS FOR ADMINISTRATION OF PAQ

This study is part of a general research project being conducted at Rutgers University. Selected school districts in New Jersey have been designated to participate in the project. The selection of students was made on a chance basis.

In a few minutes you will receive the questionnaires which we will use to collect the data. These questionnaires are designed to secure:

(1) Your opinions concerning aspects of your school life.

(2) Your opinion on a number of important social and personal questions.

Since we are collecting opinions, there are no correct or incorrect answers. All that is necessary is that you give your frank opinions. The forms do not take long to complete; the time required by most individuals varies to approximately thirty minutes. If you finish before the time is up, please remain quietly in your seats. On pages six and seven you will find an information sheet; be sure to complete it. The directions are self-explanatory; and are attached to each questionnaire. Please read the directions carefully and then proceed to answer all the questions. It is important that each question be answered. We realize that some of the questions may be difficult to answer with the information given, but please respond to each question as well as you are able. Your responses will be strictly confidential; do not write your name anywhere on the questionnaire. All replies are anonymous.

We appreciate your assistance and cooperation in this project.

APPENDIX E

PUPIL ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions:

Following are a group of statements about which you are asked to give your honest opinion. Please circle the responses which most nearly reflect your feelings about the statement.

SA--Strongly Agree, A--Agree, U--Undecided, D--Disagree, SD--Strongly Disagree

1. White lies are justified when they help to avoid punishment . . . . SA A U D SD
2. It is a good policy to tell teachers only what they want to hear . . . . SA A U D SD
3. In this school success is to be aimed for by any means that pupils can devise . SA A U D SD
4. It is most important that right always be achieved even if it requires tremendous effort . . . . SA A U D SD
5. Schools are run by others and there is little that pupils can do about it . . . SA A U D SD
6. I think that I can now predict what I can achieve in an occupation after graduation . . . . SA A U D SD
7. The school experiences of pupils are controlled by plans devised by others . . SA A U D SD
8. There really isn't much use complaining to the teachers about the school because it is impossible to influence them anyway . . . . SA A U D SD
9. The reason I endure some unpleasant things now is because I feel that it will benefit me later on . . . . SA A U D SD
10. Pupils should have most of their time free from study . . . . SA A U D SD
11. Sometimes it is necessary to make promises to school authorities which you don't intend to keep . . . . SA A U D SD
12. In order to get ahead in this school pupils are almost forced to do some things which are not right . . . . SA A U D SD
13. Pupils often are given the opportunity to express their ideas about how the school ought to be run . . . . SA A U D SD

SA--Strongly Agree, A--Agree, U--Undecided, D--Disagree, SD--Strongly Disagree

14. It is possible on the basis of the level of my present school achievement, to predict with a high degree of accuracy, the level of achievement I can expect in adulthood . . . . . SA A U D SD

15. It is very desirable that pupils learn to be good citizens . . . . SA A U D SD

16. I think my teachers would have given me the same marks on the last report card no matter how well I really had done . . . . SA A U D SD

17. My school experiences will help me to become a good citizen . . . . SA A U D SD

18. It doesn't matter too much if what I am doing is right or wrong as long as it works . . . . SA A U D SD

19. At school we learn habits and attitudes which will guide us in the achievement of a good life . . . . SA A U D SD

20. I know that I will complete my high school education . . . . SA A U D SD

21. These days a pupil doesn't really know who he can count on . . . . SA A U D SD

22. I often worry about what my teachers think of me . . . . SA A U D SD

23. Pupils must try to develop an interest in their school subjects even when the content is dull . . . . SA A U D SD

24. It is more important to achieve enjoyment and personal satisfaction than to sacrifice yourself for others . . . . . . SA A U D SD

25. I study hard to school mainly because I want to get good grades . . . . SA A U D SD

26. I often read and study in my courses beyond what is required by my teachers . SA A U D SD

27. Really, a pupil has done wrong only if he gets caught . . . . SA A U D SD

28. The school principal is really interested in all pupils in this school . SA A U D SD

29. In discipline cases the pupil's explanation of the circumstances is carefully weighed by the school authorities before punishment is decided upon . . . . SA A U D SD

30. The teachers will not listen to pupil complaints about unfair school rules . . SA A U D SD

SA--Strongly Agree, A--Agree, U--Undecided, D--Disagree, SD--Strongly Disagree

31. Usually, I would rather play hookey than come to school . . . . SA A U D SD
32. I would rather go to work now than go to school, but more education now will help me to get a better job later . . . . SA A U D SD
33. What I am doing at school will assist me to do what I want when I graduate . . SA A U D SD
34. Pupils have adequate opportunities to protect themselves when their interests conflict with the interests of those who run the school . . . . SA A U D SD
35. Copying parts of essays from books is justified if this results in good marks on the essays . . . . SA A U D SD
36. I get more satisfaction from doing an assignment well than from the marks which I receive on the assignment . . . . SA A U D SD
37. What we do at school will help us to affect the world in which we live . . . . SA A U D SD
38. Participation in student government activities will help me in anything I try to do in the future . . . . SA A U D SD
39. As a result of my school experiences I know what I will do when I graduate . . . SA A U D SD
40. No matter how I try I don't seem to understand the content of my courses very well . . . . SA A U D SD
41. In this school the teachers are the rulers and the pupils are the slaves . . SA A U D SD
42. It is unlikely that in this school the pupils will achieve the goals in which they believe . . . . SA A U D SD
43. If home work assignments were not required, I would seldom do homework . . SA A U D SD
44. I like to do extra problems in mathematics for fun . . . . SA A U D SD
45. I understand how decisions are made regarding what we are to study in this school . . . . SA A U D SD
46. My school studies will help me to make predictions about the kind of world in which I will live in the future . . . . . SA A U D SD
47. My present school studies will help me to understand others . . . . SA A U D SD
48. Pupils must be very careful to make the best possible impression with their teachers . . . . SA A U D SD

SA--Strongly Agree, A--Agree, U--Undecided, D--Disagree, SD--Strongly Disagree

49. If I had my way, I'd close all schools . SA A U D SD
50. Having lots of friends is more important than is getting ahead at school . . . . SA A U D SD
51. In this school pupils can complain to the principal and be given a fair hearing . . . . SA A U D SD
52. Copying another pupil's homework is justified if he agrees to let you do it . . . . SA A U D SD
53. Pupil's ideas about how the school should be run are often adopted in this school . . . . SA A U D SD
54. I find it easy to please my teachers . . SA A U D SD
55. I want to finish high school . . . . . . SA A U D SD
56. It is necessary to misbehave at school if you're going to have any fun . . . . . SA A U D SD
57. Giving an answer to someone else during an examination is not really cheating . . SA A U D SD
58. Pupils must take advantage of every opportunity, fair or unfair, because good opportunities occur very infrequently at this school . . . . SA A U D SD
59. Pupils in this school are given considerable freedom in planning their own programs to meet their future needs . SA A U D SD
60. Participation in student government activities will assist one to become a good citizen . . . . SA A U D SD

INFORMATION SHEET

Instructions:

Do not write your name anywhere on this information sheet. Please complete this form by checking the appropriate boxes and filling in spaces where indicated. Answer all questions.

1. ( ) Male ( ) Female

2. Present grade level: ( ) 9 ( ) 10 ( ) 11 ( ) 12

3. Present curriculum major: ( ) General ( ) Commercial
( ) College Preparatory ( ) Vocational ( ) Other ____________________
Please specify

4. Do you belong to a school club or extra curricular activity?
( ) Yes ( ) No

5. Do you get grades which are:
( ) Excellent ( ) Good ( ) Average ( ) Poor

6. On the average, how much time do you spend studying each night?
( ) None, or almost none ( ) About 1 hour ( ) About ½ hour
( ) About 2 hours ( ) 3 or more hours

7. If school were not compulsory and you could make your choice freely, would you:
( ) Stay in school and graduate ( ) Don't know
( ) Leave school before graduating

8. Are you planning to go to college? ( ) Yes ( ) No ( ) Undecided

9. Are you employed outside of the school? ( ) Yes ( ) No

10. Do you contribute money to the support of your family?
( ) Yes ( ) No

11. Are your parents living? ( ) Both ( ) Father only
( ) Mother only ( ) Neither

12. Are your parents divorced or separated? ( ) Yes ( ) No

13. Who do you live with? ( ) Both parents ( ) Father ( ) Mother
( ) Father and stepmother ( ) Mother and stepfather
( ) Other ______________

14. Do you have brothers or sisters? ( ) 0 ( ) 1 ( ) 2
( ) 3 ( ) More

15. Does your mother work outside the home?
( ) Full Time ( ) Part Time ( ) No

APPENDIX F

SCORING KEY AND SUBTEST GROUPINGS FOR THE PUPIL ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE

Scoring Method	I - SA=5, A=4, U=3, D=2, SD=1
	II - SA=1, A=2, U=3, D=4, SD=5
	III - SA=1, A=3, U=5, D=3, SD=1

	Scoring Method	Items
Powerlessness	I	5, 7, 8, 30, 41
	II	13, 28, 29, 34, 51, 53, 59
Self-Estrangement	I	10, 12, 16, 21, 31, 32, 40, 43
	II	26, 36, 44, 54
Normlessness	I	1, 2, 3, 11, 18, 24, 27, 35, 42, 52, 56, 57, 58
	II	15
Meaninglessness	II	6, 45, 46
	III	14, 17, 19, 33, 37, 38, 39, 47, 60
Isolation	I	9, 22, 25, 48, 49, 50
	II	4, 20, 23, 55

APPENDIX G

MISCELLANEOUS TABLES

TABLE G-1

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GRADE LEVEL AND STUDENT SENSE OF POWERLESSNESS

	Ninth Grade	Tenth Grade	Eleventh Grade	Twelfth Grade
Number	39	39	39	39
Mean	33.28	34.04	35.00	34.20
Standard Deviation	2.65	2.97	3.47	6.74

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	3	58.62	19.54	1.067 (N.S.)
Within Groups	152	2783.57	18.31	
Total	155	2842.19		

TABLE G-2

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GRADE LEVEL AND STUDENT SENSE OF NORMLESSNESS

	Ninth Grade	Tenth Grade	Eleventh Grade	Twelfth Grade
Number	39	39	39	39
Mean	34.85	34.87	34.99	33.33
Standard Deviation	2.42	2.25	2.10	5.92

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	3	73.26	24.42	1.941 (N.S.)
Within Groups	152	1912.24	12.58	
Total	155	1985.50		

TABLE G-3

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GRADE LEVEL AND STUDENT SENSE OF TOTAL ALIENATION

	Ninth Grade	Tenth Grade	Eleventh Grade	Twelfth Grade
Number	39	39	39	39
Mean	164.96	166.28	166.80	160.65
Standard Deviation	7.18	7.18	6.38	27.25

	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	3	909.75	303.25	1.367 (N.S.)
Within Groups	152	33,666.64	221.49	
Total	155	34,576.39		

TABLE G-4

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GRADE LEVEL AND STUDENT SENSE OF SELF-ESTRANGEMENT

	Ninth Grade	Tenth Grade	Eleventh Grade	Twelfth Grade
Number	39	39	39	39
Mean	35.87	36.55	36.80	35.16
Standard Deviation	2.06	1.87	1.73	6.07

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	3	63.25	21.08	1.773 (N.S.
Within Groups	152	1807.07	11.89	
Total	155	1870.32		

TABLE G-5

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GRADE LEVEL AND STUDENT SENSE OF MEANINGLESSNESS

	Ninth Grade	Tenth Grade	Eleventh Grade	Twelfth Grade
Number	39	39	39	39
Mean	35.65	36.72	35.55	34.46
Standard Deviation	1.39	1.68	1.00	5.84

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	3	41.57	13.86	1.391 (N.S.)
Within Groups	152	1513.80	9.96	
Total	155	1555.37		

TABLE G-6

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEAN OPENNESS SCORES AS DESCRIBED BY DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN AND MEAN OPENNESS SCORES AS DESCRIBED BY TOTAL PROFESSIONAL STAFF

	Department Chairmen	Total Professional Staff
Number	36	36
Mean	32.83	31.84
Standard Deviation	12.20	9.94

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	1	17.80	17.80	.1556 (N.S.)
Within Groups	70	8007.01	114.39	
Total	71	8024.81		

TABLE G-7

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEAN DISENGAGEMENT AS DESCRIBED BY DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN AND MEAN DISENGAGEMENT AS DESCRIBED BY TOTAL PROFESSIONAL STAFF

	Department Chairmen	Total Professional Staff
Number	36	36
Mean	58.39	59.25
Standard Deviation	5.45	3.23

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	1	13.35	13.35	.6648 (N.S.
Within Groups	70	1405.30	20.06	
Total	71	1418.65		

TABLE G-8

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEAN HINDRANCE AS DESCRIBED BY DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN AND MEAN HINDRANCE AS DESCRIBED BY TOTAL PROFESSIONAL STAFF

	Department Chairmen	Total Professional Staff
Number	36	36
Mean	51.44	53.47
Standard Deviation	6.40	3.91

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	1	74.01	74.01	2.6301 (N.S.
Within Groups	70	1969.85	28.14	
Total	71	2043.86		

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TABLE G-9

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEAN ESPRIT AS DESCRIBED BY DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN AND MEAN ESPRIT AS DESCRIBED BY TOTAL PROFESSIONAL STAFF

	Department Chairmen	Total Professional Staff
Number	36	36
Mean	44.69	45.19
Standard Deviation	5.70	2.95

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	1	4.50	4.50	.2189 (N.S.)
Within Groups	70	1439.27	20.56	
Total	71	1443.77		

TABLE G-10

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEAN INTIMACY AS DESCRIBED BY DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN AND MEAN INTIMACY AS DESCRIBED BY TOTAL PROFESSIONAL STAFF

	Department Chairmen	Total Professional Staff
Number	36	36
Mean	52.56	53.64
Standard Deviation	4.95	2.63

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	1	21.13	21.13	1.3453 (N.S.)
Within Groups	70	1099.19	15.70	
Total	71	1120.32		

TABLE G-11

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEAN ALOOFNESS AS DESCRIBED BY DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN AND MEAN ALOOFNESS AS DESCRIBED BY TOTAL PROFESSIONAL STAFF

	Department Chairmen	Total Professional Staff
Number	36	36
Mean	48.83	49.06
Standard Deviation	5.57	3.75

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	1	.89	.89	.0394 (N.S.
Within Groups	70	1578.88	22.56	
Total	71	1579.77		

TABLE G-12

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEAN PRODUCTION EMPHASIS AS DESCRIBED BY DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN AND MEAN PRODUCTION EMPHASIS AS DESCRIBED BY TOTAL PROFESSIONAL STAFF

	Department Chairmen	Total Professional Staff
Number	36	36
Mean	49.58	48.97
Standard Deviation	4.77	4.77

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	1	6.72	6.72	.421 (N.S.)
Within Groups	70	1117.72	15.97	
Total	71	1124.44		

TABLE G-13

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEAN CONSIDERATION AS DESCRIBED BY DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN AND MEAN CONSIDERATION AS DESCRIBED BY TOTAL PROFESSIONAL STAFF

	Department Chairmen	Total Professional Staff
Number	36	36
Mean	51.89	48.53
Standard Deviation	4.89	2.79

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	1	203.35	203.35	12.84**
Within Groups	70	1108.52	15.84	
Total	71	1311.87		

**p <.01

TABLE G-14

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEAN THRUST AS DESCRIBED BY DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN AND MEAN THRUST AS DESCRIBED BY TOTAL PROFESSIONAL STAFF

	Department Chairmen	Total Professional Staff
Number	36	36
Mean	46.58	45.94
Standard Deviation	5.66	4.62

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	1	7.35	7.35	.2752 (N.S.)
Within Groups	70	1868.63	26.69	
Total	71	1875.98		

APPENDIX H

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND CORRELATION MATRIX FOR MAJOR VARIABLES IN THE SAMPLE

No.	Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	Disengagement	59.44	3.23
2	Hindrance	53.82	4.01
3	Esprit	45.04	3.03
4	Intimacy	53.28	2.69
5	Aloofness	48.91	3.87
6	Production Emphasis	49.29	3.03
7	Thrust	45.82	4.47
8	Consideration	48.38	2.74
9	Openness	31.42	8.68
10	Normlessness	34.81	1.71
11	Isolation	24.81	0.55
12	Powerlessness	34.50	2.90
13	Meaninglessness	35.54	1.05
14	Self Estrangement	36.44	1.41
15	Total Alienation	166.06	5.57
16	Custodialism (PCI)	55.38	2.75
17	Staff Size	82.58	28.59
18	Student Population	1240.11	446.78
19	Population Density of Community	74.33[a]	105.40
20	Teacher Turnover Rate	20.98	6.01
21	Valuation Per Pupil	361.22[b]	106.77
22	Percentage of Minority Teachers	1.97	2.45
23	Percentage of Minority Students	6.72	12.72
24	Dummy 1 (Regional vs. Non-regional Type Schools)		
25	Dummy 2 (Urban vs. Non-urban Type Schools)		

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[a] (Multiplied by 100 = mean number of people per square mile)

[b] (Multiplied by 100 = mean valuation per pupil)

CORRELATION MATRIX

Variable Number	DIS 1	HIN 2	ESP 3	INT 4	ALO 5	P.E. 6	THR 7	CON 8	OPEN 9
1 (DIS)	1.000	0.548	-0.499	-0.178	0.167	0.012	-0.658	-0.461	-0.879
2 (HIN)		1.000	-0.470	-0.430	0.101	-0.022	-0.559	-0.390	-0.657
3 (ESP)			1.000	0.376	-0.468	-0.160	0.331	0.189	0.687
4 (INT)				1.000	-0.061	-0.301	-0.001	-0.080	0.196
5 (ALO)					1.000	0.047	-0.464	-0.489	-0.451
6 (P.E.)						1.000	-0.309	-0.194	-0.200
7 (THR)							1.000	0.584	0.863
8 (CON)								1.000	0.525
9 (OPEN)									1.000

Variable Number	NORM 10	ISO 11	POWER 12	MEAN 13	SELF 14	TOT.A. 15	PCI 16	STAFSZ 17
1 (DIS)	0.477	0.256	0.286	0.056	0.226	0.389	0.262	0.217
2 (HIN)	0.347	0.147	0.354	0.036	0.293	0.385	0.234	0.099
3 (ESP)	-0.261	-0.124	0.065	0.169	-0.007	-0.029	-0.193	0.003
4 (INT)	-0.228	-0.242	0.033	0.156	-0.027	-0.055	-0.259	0.253
5 (ALO)	0.098	0.080	-0.051	-0.388	-0.132	-0.094	0.285	0.252
6 (P.E.)	0.060	0.004	0.062	0.082	-0.079	0.045	0.251	-0.274
7 (THR)	-0.336	-0.139	-0.354	0.024	-0.170	-0.339	-0.306	-0.169
8 (CON)	-0.229	0.054	-0.323	-0.051	-0.100	-0.267	-0.288	-0.346
9 (OPEN)	-0.440	-0.208	-0.279	0.053	-0.180	-0.336	-0.325	-0.157
10 (NORM)	1.000	0.596	0.497	-0.007	0.782	0.821	0.417	0.279
11 (ISO)		1.000	0.194	-0.229	0.533	0.476	0.311	0.373
12 (POWER)			1.000	0.164	0.468	0.840	0.374	0.104
13 (MEAN)				1.000	0.193	0.297	-0.273	-0.084
14 (SELF)					1.000	0.826	0.197	0.245
15 (TOT.A.)						1.000	0.351	0.221
16 (PCI)							1.000	0.052
17 (STAFSZ)								1.000

Variable Number	STUENL 18	POPDEN 19	TTRNOV 20	V/PUP 21	MINOTE 22	MINOST 23	DUMMY 1 24	DUMMY 2 25
1 (DIS)	0.220	0.226	-0.050	0.022	0.258	0.220	0.203	0.110
2 (HIN)	0.109	0.161	-0.187	0.103	0.065	0.157	0.251	-0.003
3 (ESP)	-0.087	-0.468	-0.191	0.098	-0.143	-0.328	0.187	-0.383
4 (INT)	0.136	-0.440	-0.076	-0.218	-0.162	-0.264	0.171	-0.219
5 (ALO)	0.327	0.459	-0.223	-0.061	0.238	0.356	-0.293	0.585
6 (P.E.)	-0.216	0.113	0.189	0.046	-0.067	-0.100	-0.257	0.002
7 (THR)	-0.164	-0.176	0.228	0.047	-0.088	-0.140	-0.118	-0.099
8 (CON)	-0.339	-0.056	0.347	-0.142	-0.204	-0.034	-0.089	-0.114
9 (OPEN)	-0.188	-0.326	0.073	0.050	-0.195	-0.267	-0.083	-0.218
10 (NORM)	0.187	0.204	0.050	0.272	0.077	0.056	0.083	0.047
11 (ISO)	0.402	0.171	0.081	0.172	0.047	0.040	0.001	0.230
12 (POWER)	0.038	-0.032	-0.078	0.239	-0.176	-0.070	0.071	-0.185
13 (MEAN)	-0.207	-0.529	0.264	0.117	-0.083	-0.609	0.244	-0.647
14 (SELF)	0.122	-0.202	0.120	0.286	-0.204	-0.362	0.164	-0.319
15 (TOT.A.)	0.106	-0.089	0.062	0.319	-0.131	-0.223	0.150	-0.263
16 (PCI)	0.057	0.417	0.110	-0.011	-0.024	0.365	-0.060	0.430
17 (STAFSZ)	0.910	-0.012	-0.317	-0.053	0.300	0.112	0.242	0.212
18 (STUENL)	1.000	0.100	-0.351	-0.057	0.381	0.207	0.184	0.350
19 (POPDEN)		1.000	-0.083	-0.213	0.099	0.761	-0.364	0.681
20 (TTRNOV)			1.000	0.204	-0.080	-0.197	-0.212	-0.106
21 (V/PUP)				1.000	0.093	-0.281	-0.082	-0.048
22 (MINOTE)					1.000	0.356	0.012	0.292
23 (MINOST)						1.000	-0.195	0.697
24 (DUMMY 1)							1.000	-0.341
25 (DUMMY 2)								1.000